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ABSTRACT

Data collected in a 1968 interview survey of a national probability sample of young women 14-24 years of age are the basis for a 5-year longitudinal study of employment and educational experience. The report analyzes work experience, educational background, labor market status, work attitudes, and plans for the future. Future analysis will use changes in the variables to determine the effects of socioeconomic and demographic factors on education and employment decisions. Studies of other population subgroups, divided by age and sex, have been conducted by The Center for Human Resource Research, and are available in past issues of Research in Education. (BH)

Years for Decision

A longitudinal study of the educational and labor market experience of young women

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Roger D. Roderick
Frederick A. Zeller
Andrew I. Kohen
and Associates

Volume one February 1971

Center for Human
Resource Research
The Ohio State University
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FOREWORD

This volume is an introduction to a five-year longitudinal study of the educational and labor market experience of young women. In early 1965, the Center for Human Resource Research, under a contract with the United States Department of Labor, began the planning of longitudinal studies of the labor market experience of four subsets of the United States population: men 45 to 59 years of age, women 30 to 44 years of age, and young men and women 14 to 24 years of age.

Cost considerations dictated limiting the population covered. Given that constraint, these four groups were selected for study because each faces special labor market problems that are challenging to policy makers. In the case of the older male group these problems are reflected in a tendency for unemployment, when it occurs, to be of longer-than-average duration and in the fact that average annual incomes of males decline continuously with advancing age beyond the mid-forties. Moreover, labor force participation rates of men in their fifties and early sixties have declined during the past decade and a half, and the reasons are by no means clear. In the case of the older of the two groups of women the special problems are those associated with reentry into the labor force on the part of a great many married women after their children no longer require their continuous presence at home. For the young men and women, of course, the problems are those revolving around the process of occupational choice and include both the preparation for work and the frequently difficult period of accommodation to the labor market when formal schooling has been completed.

While the more-or-less unique problems of each of the subject groups to some extent dictate separate orientations for the four studies, there is, nevertheless, a general conceptual framework and a general set of objectives common to all of them. Each of the four studies views the experience and behavior of individuals in the labor market as resulting from an interaction between the characteristics of the environment and a variety of demographic, economic, social, and attitudinal characteristics of the individual. Each study seeks to identify those characteristics that appear to be most important in explaining variations in several important facets of labor market experience: labor force participation, unemployment experience, and various types of labor mobility. Knowledge of this kind may be expected to make an important contribution to our understanding of the way in which labor markets operate and thus to be useful for the development and implementation of appropriate labor market policies.

For each of the four population groups described above, a national probability sample of the noninstitutional civilian population has been drawn by the Bureau of the Census. Members of each sample are being surveyed periodically for five years. According to present plans, the last round of interviews will occur in 1971 for the two male groups, in 1972 for the older group of women, and in early 1973 for the younger group of women. Reports on the first two surveys of the young men (Career Thresholds, Volumes I and II, 1969 and 1970), the first and second surveys of the older men (The Pre-Retirement Years, Volumes I and II, 1968 and 1970), and the first survey of the older of the two groups of women (Dual Careers, Volume I, 1970) have already been published.

The present report is based on data collected in the initial interview survey of young women 14 to 24 years of age, which was conducted early in 1968. Based exclusively on a set of tabulations that were specified in advance, this report is intended simply as a review of progress on the research to date--a setting of the stage, as it were, for the longitudinal analysis to come. Moreover, even the data obtained in the initial survey frequently require more refined types of analysis than have as yet been possible. Multivariate analysis of some of the topics treated in this volume will be undertaken once we receive the computer tape from the Census Bureau, and these will become the subjects of special reports to be issued in the future.

Both the overall study and the present report are the product of the joint effort of a great many persons, not all of whom are even known to us. The research staff of the Center has enjoyed the continuous expert and friendly collaboration of personnel of the Bureau of the Census, which, under a separate contract with the Department of Labor, is responsible for developing the samples, conducting all of the interviews, processing the data, and preparing the tabulations we have requested.

We are especially indebted to Robert Pearl and Daniel Levine who have, in turn, served as Chief of the Demographic Surveys Division; to George Hall, who until recently served as Assistant Division Chief and worked closely with us from the inception of the longitudinal studies; to Rachel Cordesman, who has been closely involved with the project from its inception; to Marvin Thompson and Alan Jones, each of whom served at some time as our principal point of contact with the Bureau; and to Marie Argana, currently Chief of the Longitudinal Surveys Branch, who has contributed much time and thought to all of the longitudinal studies. We also wish to acknowledge our indebtedness to James Johnson and the interviewing staff of the Field Division, who were responsible for the collection of the data; to David Lipscomb and his staff of the Systems Division for the editing and coding of the interview schedules; and to Anthony Woodell, Betty Dobronski, and their associates for the computer work.

The advice and counsel of many persons in the Department of Labor have been very helpful to us both in designing the study and in interpreting its findings. Without in any way implicating them in whatever deficiencies may exist in this report, we wish to acknowledge especially the continuous interest and support of Howard Rosen, Director of the Office of Research and Development, and the valuable advice provided by Stuart Garfinkle and Jacob Schiffman, who, as our principal contacts in the Office of Research and Development, have worked closely with us from the outset. We have also profited from the continued interest and the counsel of the staff of the Women's Bureau under the direction of Mary Dublin Keyserling during the planning phases of the study and of Elizabeth Duncan Koontz more recently.

Major responsibility for planning and editing the present report was assumed by John R. Shea, Associate Project Director. He and his fellow authors wish to acknowledge the valuable contribution of other members of the Center's staff. Ruth Spitz had a major hand in designing the research. She also very kindly reviewed and commented on drafts of several chapters. Karl Egge wrote the original version of Chapter 4; Ronald Schmidt is responsible for the appendix on sampling variation; Milton Miller helped in the preparation of tables. We also wish to acknowledge the advice and assistance of Gil Nestel, John Grasso, and their associates in the computer programming arena. Special mention is due Ellen Mumma and Betsy Schmidt who were responsible for preparing the tables and checking the manuscript in addition to maintaining the necessary liaison with the Census Bureau, and Dortha Gilbert and Kandy Bell who typed the several versions of text and tables.

The Ohio State University
January 1971

Herbert S. Parnes
Project Director

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CHAPTER ONE*

INTRODUCTION

This report sets the stage for a five-year study of the labor market behavior of young women in the United States who were 14 to 24 years of age in 1968. On the basis of data collected annually by personal interview from a representative national sample drawn from the civilian noninstitutional population, the study will analyze the relationships over time between labor force and educational experiences and a variety of sociological, psychological, and economic characteristics. This first report, based on interviews conducted in early 1968, analyzes the present status and attitudes of the young women in relation to the labor market, as well as their prior work and educational experiences and their plans for the future. Subsequent reports will explore and attempt to account for the changes that occur over the five years of the study.

By comparing the labor market behavior of this age group with a similar cohort of women 30 to 44 years of age, we have an excellent opportunity to examine how the roles of women are being modified in a period of significant social change.[1] Moreover, the span from 14 to 24 years of age encompasses a period within which young women first make conscious decisions regarding such fundamental matters as formal education, marriage, childbearing, and employment outside the home. These decisions are by nature complex; and this complexity is intensified by changing societal attitudes and expectations concerning the women's home lives and careers--especially attitudes of husbands, parents, and "significant others." The implications for initial entry into, withdrawal from, and reentry into the labor force--as well as for the kinds of jobs that women hold--are clear.

Interest in the labor market behavior of young women also derives from a concern for the extent to which their abilities are effectively utilized. As in the case of young men, young women experience high rates of unemployment. Moreover, during the past three decades there has been a decline in the proportion that women constitute of total employment in professional, technical, and kindred occupations.[2] In recent years, nearly one-fifth of all employed female college graduates have been working in clerical, sales, service, and operative jobs,[3] and trends in the relationship between labor supply and demand bode ill for any improvement in utilization rates for this important source of humanpower. For instance, for the first time since World War II an oversupply of school teachers is emerging across the country.[4] We shall be interested in observing whether young women are able to move in large numbers into several nontraditional occupational categories with faster growing employment opportunities. The five-year study should generate real insight into the utilization issue to the extent that we are able to disentangle labor market conditions from the educational goals of women, their work attitudes, past labor market experiences, conditions they themselves set for their employment, and other factors.

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* This chapter has been adapted from the introductory chapter of our initial report on the longitudinal study of men 45 to 59, and portions of the text are identical. See Herbert S. Parnes, Belton M. Fleisher, Robert C. Miljus, Ruth S. Spitz, and Associates, The Pre-Retirement Years: A Longitudinal Study of the Labor Market Experiences of the Cohort of Men 45-59 Years of Age, Vol. I (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1968).

[1] John R. Shea, Ruth S. Spitz, Frederick A. Zeller, and Associates, Dual Careers: A Longitudinal Study of Labor Market Experience of Women, Vol. I (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1970).

The foregoing should not be interpreted to mean that employment difficulties experienced by college women are somehow more important than others. We are especially concerned about the dead-end nature of many occupations for women and the relatively low earnings associated with a large number of jobs. In the case of mothers who cannot count on the support of other adult family members, such conditions can be particularly serious, not only for the women involved, but also for the welfare of their children. Partly for this reason, considerable attention is directed throughout the report to family structure, rates of pay, child-care costs, educational aspirations, and other elements bearing on the life styles and labor market behavior of American women.

I RESEARCH DESIGN

Data presented in this report were obtained over a six-week period beginning in February 1968, through personal interviews with a national probability sample of the civilian noninstitutional population of young women who were 14 to 24 years of age as of January 1, 1968. The sample was drawn by the Bureau of the Census from households in the 235 areas that constituted the primary sampling units (PSU's) in the experimental Monthly Labor Survey (MLS) conducted between early 1964 and late 1966.[5] In order to provide statistically reliable estimates for black women and to permit a more confident analysis of differences in labor market experience between whites and blacks, the latter were over-represented in the sample. In previous reports based on data from the National Longitudinal Surveys, the term "blacks" was used to refer to the group now referred to in U. S. Government reports as "Negro and other races." In this report "black" refers only to Negroes, while "white" refers to Caucasians. Other "nonwhite" groups are not shown separately in tables but are included whenever grand totals are presented.

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[2] U.S. Department of Labor, 1969 Handbook on Women Workers (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 92.

[3] Ibid, p. 211.

[4] See, for example, U. S. Department of Labor, U.S. Manpower in the 1970's: Opportunity and Challenge (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 11.

[5] The Monthly Labor Survey (MLS) was designed to test a number of changes in the interview schedule for the Current Population Survey (CPS) that had been proposed as a means of refining and improving current measures of the labor force, employment, and unemployment. After two and a half years of experimentation and pretesting, the CPS schedule was amended in January 1967, and the two samples were merged, enlarging the CPS sample to 52,500 households in 449 areas. The changes were relatively minor leaving the basic labor force concepts largely undisturbed. (U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report of the Labor Force, Vol. 13, No. 8, February 1967, pp. 4-5.

The sample consists of 5,159 individuals, of whom 3,638 are white, 1,459 are black, and 62 are members of other races. Sample cases are weighted to adjust the sample observations to independent estimates of the civilian noninstitutional population for February 1968, by color and by the age groups included in the study. In most instances, the analysis is limited to whites and blacks. Only where totals for the entire population are presented do the data include members of other races.[6]

As in any survey based upon a sample, the data are subject to sampling error, i.e., variation attributable solely to the fact that the data emerge from a sample rather than from a complete count of the universe under examination. Since the probability of a given individual's appearance in the sample is known, it is possible to estimate approximate sampling error. Tables showing sampling errors, together with instructions for their use, are presented in Appendix C.

As has been indicated, the survey on which the present report is based is the initial stage of a longitudinal study covering a five-year period. In each subsequent survey, the first two of which already have been conducted,[7] detailed information will be obtained on current labor force and employment status and on labor market experience and income during the preceding 12 months. Thus, at the end of the five years a complete work history for the period will have been accumulated, along with a record of changes in a number of other variables expected to influence labor market behavior. Such variables include health, marital and family status, ages of children, number of dependents, child-care arrangements, aspirations, education and training, attitudes toward work and job, and future work plans.

A longitudinal population study has two essential characteristics. First, it involves measurement or description of one or more characteristics of the same group of individuals at two or more points in time.[8] Second, it involves analysis of relationships among the characteristics of these individuals at different times or of changes in one or more of their characteristics over time.

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[6] For a more detailed description of the sampling procedure, see Appendix B.

[7] Interviews were carried out in February 1969 and in February 1970.

[8] Dankward Kodlin and Donovan J. Thompson, An Appraisal of the Longitudinal Approach to Studies of Growth and Development (Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Inc., Vol. XXIII, No. 1, 1958), pp. 8, 25.

It should be noted that whether a study is longitudinal is independent of whether data are collected periodically. Making an annual survey of a group of individuals does not in itself assure a longitudinal study; nor is such a study precluded by the fact that only a single survey is conducted. If, for example, work experience data are collected annually from a sample of individuals over a five-year period solely for the purpose of ascertaining the total amount of unemployment or the total number of job changes experienced during the period by the respondents, the study is clearly not longitudinal in terms of the definition offered above. On the other hand, if a single survey collects five-year work histories and if analysis of the data includes comparisons between the labor force status of the respondents in year *n* and their employment status in subsequent years, or between unemployment experience in year *n* and job mobility in year *n-1*, the study is longitudinal even though it does not involve repeated surveys.[9]

Thus, although a longitudinal analysis covering a period of several years may be made on the basis of a single survey at the end of that period, there are important advantages in conducting annual surveys. First, some types of variables cannot be measured retrospectively. If a characteristic that is subject to change over time can be ascertained only by an objective measurement (or subjective judgment) made by someone other than the respondent, retrospective measurement of that variable is obviously ruled out.[10]

A second advantage of periodic surveys is that they are less dependent upon respondents' recall, which may be faulty and which may thus impair the validity of the data, even when those data are logically susceptible to retrospective inquiry. The shorter the time period covered by detailed work histories, the more accurate the responses are likely to be, since respondents are likely to forget or ignore jobs of short duration or short periods of unemployment when they are queried about a long period of labor force experience.[11] Data on annual income are another case in point. These considerations suggest that even if longitudinal analysis were not contemplated (i.e., if the study proposed merely to analyze cumulative labor market experience over a five-year period) there would be distinct advantages in collecting the data periodically.

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[9] For an example of a rather simple retrospective longitudinal study of unemployment, see University of Michigan Survey Research Center, *Persistent Unemployment, 1957-1961* (Kalamazoo: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1962). The present report, based only on the initial interview survey, also involves longitudinal analysis in the same sense, since the current labor force status of the respondent is analyzed in light of her previous education and work experience.

[10] It is no accident that the most extensive experience with longitudinal studies has been in the field of health, since subjects cannot be expected to be able to report, for example, what their blood pressure was five years ago.

[11] By comparing data collected in 1959 on unemployment experience during the previous 24 months with data collected in 1958 covering the previous 12 months, the University of Michigan Survey Research Center has estimated that the former understated by about 20 percent the number of families affected by unemployment during the two-year period. University of Michigan Survey Research Center, *Persistent Unemployment, 1957-1961*, p. 13.

Finally, periodic surveys permit the study of certain methodological problems in labor market research that could not be approached by a single survey. The reliability of response to questions about work experience can be tested by asking questions in the final survey that can be checked against responses in previous surveys. As another example, the validity of hypothetical questions and attitudinal measures as predictors of actual school and labor market behavior can be tested only through periodic surveys of the same individuals.

In the longitudinal analysis of our data over the five-year period, we draw a distinction between "static" and "dynamic" variables. The former are those characteristics of the respondents that remain constant throughout the five-year period. Obvious examples are color, date and place of birth, residence at age 14, and occupation of mother at that time. An important group of variables in this category is that relating to education and work experience prior to the initial (1968) survey. For the most part, information on the "static" variables has been obtained in the 1968 survey reported here, although we are not precluded, of course, from adding variables of this kind in subsequent interviews.

The "dynamic" variables include all those subject to change for each respondent during the course of the study. In addition to measures of school enrollment status, current labor force and employment status, and annual work experience and income, this category includes some of the variables whose effect on both labor market behavior and plans is to be studied. Examples of such variables are marital status, number and ages of children, health of the respondent (and her husband), extent of occupational training, and a set of attitudinal measures.

Reports on each of the follow-up surveys will focus primarily on changes in labor market status since the 1968 survey. Explanations for such changes will be sought not only in terms of the static variables, but also in terms of changes in those dynamic variables which are theoretically expected to influence labor market behavior and plans. An example of the latter is the expected increase in the respondent's labor force participation after the youngest child in the household reaches age six.

II CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The most general explanation that can be offered for a person's labor market behavior is that it reflects an interaction between environmental and personal characteristics. Consider, for example, the employment prospects of a young mother who enters the labor force to seek work. Her prospects depend in part upon the particular set of characteristics that determine her attractiveness to potential employers: e.g., education, training and skills, work experience, health and physical fitness, race, anticipated job stability (perhaps a function of marital status and number and ages of children), appearance, and age. Some of these may be functionally relevant to job performance. Others may reflect other elements in employers' hiring preferences and have little or nothing to do with performance.

A second set of "personal" characteristics affecting employment prospects operates to determine the range of potential employers to whose attention the woman is likely to come. Her knowledge of alternative employment opportunities is important, as are the self-assurance and initiative with which she conducts her search for work, and her willingness to carry this search to new geographical locations, industries, and occupations. Of course, she is likely to take with her a constellation of status-roles which includes, among others, some combination of job-seeker (and, later, employee), student, mother, and wife. These are often competing roles, and therefore must be accorded differential role-emphasis. We would hypothesize that the weight she ascribes to each will influence both the intensiveness and the extensiveness of her job search.

Third, her hierarchy of preferences for different types of work, establishments, hours, and other conditions of employment, and different types of economic and noneconomic rewards affects not only the kinds of work that she will seek, but also the range of specific jobs that she will consider. Educational goals and career expectations also are likely to influence her labor market behavior.

Finally, the woman's economic circumstances may condition the likelihood of her employment. The extent of her own and her family's financial resources, her access to income from sources other than her own employment, and the extent and character of her own and her family's financial obligations, including the obligation to support others, all affect her "staying power," and, thus, the requirements that she establishes for an acceptable job.

The woman's labor market experience clearly depends upon environmental factors as well as upon her own characteristics. For any given set of personal characteristics, unemployment upon entry to the labor force may be expected to be of longer duration in a depressed than in a buoyant economy. Similarly, the degree of concentration in the local labor market of industries and occupations that normally employ large complements of young female workers, as well as the availability of job opportunities congruent with her own qualifications, are important factors. Employer and trade union policies likewise help to determine how readily she will be able to find a job.

Government policies also play a role in her ability to adapt to the labor market. The effectiveness of the public employment service and the availability of public manpower development programs and their conditions of eligibility are illustrative of factors that can affect the employment prospects of a woman entering or reentering the labor force. For a woman who is the mother of young children, the availability of acceptable child-care services may be particularly important as a means of improving her prospects for employment by removing contraints upon the type and location of work for which she can make herself available. In addition, there are statutory age restrictions upon certain types of employment and hours worked.

The illustrations of the preceding several paragraphs can be generalized to include all facets of labor market behavior. Whether interest centers on school attendance, labor force participation, mobility, or occupational choice, the explanation for observed patterns of behavior or experience is to be sought in the relationship between the individual young woman and environmental characteristics. She makes choices and acts in ways that are conditioned by the total complex of her characteristics. Her behavior also is conditioned by her perception of the environment; and even if she is insensitive to or misinterprets environmental factors, they can make her choices irrelevant, or, what may be even worse, "punish" her for them. The environment, in other words, plays a dual role in explaining labor market behavior; it conditions the values and perceptions of the individual and therefore the choices that she makes; and it imposes real constraints upon her action.

It is clear that there is a time dimension to both individual and environmental variables. In the case of the individual, almost every important characteristic affecting a choice or an action in the labor market, and in fact the very decision about whether to participate in the labor market at all, is at least in part a product of other characteristics of the individual and of the environment at an earlier period of time. For example, a woman worker's skills and knowledge are a result of her past education, training, and work experience. Her educational attainment, in turn, depends upon such factors as native endowment, early cultural influences, her parents' financial resources, and the availability of educational opportunities.

The nature of the socioeconomic environment at any point in time is also a function of its past. Moreover, attitudes that condition the behavior of individuals are in substantial measure a reflection of earlier environmental influences. For example, the civil rights struggles of the last decade may have made many young black women extremely desirous and demanding of equal opportunity in employment and education; and these manifestations may be present to a different extent among the youngest black girls than among the somewhat older ones. At the same time, the Women's Liberation movement may be changing aspirations and role-conceptions of young white women in a somewhat different fashion. These changes may well be sufficiently pronounced to show up even in this relatively short, five-year study.

Of course, no single study could be expected to deal with all the complex factors implicit in the above paragraphs. This study concentrates mainly on characteristics which relate to the supply side of the labor market. In general, it seeks to determine which characteristics of young women are important in accounting for variations in their labor market experience and their plans for the future. Environmental factors, however, are by no means ignored.

III THE VARIABLES

Dependent Variables

Labor force participation, unemployment, occupational assignment, rate of pay, and educational aspirations are the major dependent variables in this study. A number of other factors related to the employment of young women also are explored as dependent variables: e.g., attitudes toward work and job, child-care arrangements, and attitudes toward the employment of women.[12]

Labor force participation Several measures of labor force participation are used. One of these is based upon the conventional definition of labor force status which depends upon the individual's activities in the calendar week preceding the time of the interview.[13] The interview questions (Items 34-36) and the coding procedures used for classifying respondents by labor force status are identical to those currently used in the Current Population Survey.[14] A second measure is total number of weeks in the labor force in calendar year 1967. This was determined for each respondent by adding the number of weeks she had worked and the number of weeks she was on lay-off or looking for work during the year (Items 44-46). This measure has the advantage of displaying more variation than does labor force status in a single week.

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[12] The item number in parentheses after each variable described in this section refers to the relevant question on the interview schedule, which is reproduced in Appendix F.

[13] For convenience and clarity, we refer to this week as the "survey week," although in technical Census parlance it is the "reference week."

[14] For a detailed set of definitions, see U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report of the Labor Force, Vol. XIII, No. 8, February 1967, pp. 3-13.

It is a less refined measure, however, since the questions on which it is based do not carefully probe the individual's precise activity in each week of the year. A third measure of participation is the number of hours per week which the respondent usually works on her primary job (Item 42b). This distinguishes full-time from part-time labor force participation. Other measures of participation used in this report include whether the respondent ever worked (Items 37g or 38a), whether she was in the labor force at all during the preceding year (Items 44a and 46a), and measures of prospective entry to the labor force: whether a woman outside the labor force would accept a hypothetical job offer (Item 66a); and, if so, under what conditions (Items 66b-e). Those out of the labor force were also asked whether they expected to look for work within the next six months (Item 66g). In addition, their current views regarding planned activities at age 35 provide a final measure of potential labor force participation (Item 72).

Unemployment The definition and measurement of employment status in the week preceding the interview follows that of the Census Bureau's Current Population Survey (CPS) (Items 34-36). In addition, information was gathered on the number of weeks that the respondent was on lay-off or looking for work during 1967 (Items 37-39). This supplementary measure of unemployment parallels the treatment of labor force status described above and evolved out of the same sort of considerations. Finally, the number of separate spells of unemployment during 1967 also was ascertained.

Mobility While not used extensively in this report, measures of interfirm, occupational, industrial, and geographical job movement have been derived from work history data. Each person interviewed was asked to identify both her current or most recent job (Item 39) and if she was not enrolled in school, her first job after leaving school (Item 51). Questions were then raised to permit classification of the responses according to occupation (Item 39c), industry (Item 39d), class of worker (Item 39e), method of job search (Item 40a), and length of service (Item 40b). To elicit some measure of potential mobility, employed respondents were asked to react to hypothetical job offers which would necessitate changing employers. In all cases they were presented with a hypothetical offer within their own community (Item 54); and the nonmarried were asked about possible offers outside their areas of residence (Item 55).[15]

Educational and occupational aspirations Young girls who were enrolled in school were asked how much education they would like to obtain (Item 29a) and how much they actually expect to receive (Item 31). To measure future plans, they were questioned about what they would like to be doing when they reach age 35 (Item 72). Reasons behind their choices (Item 73) and their perceptions of their chances of achieving their occupational aspirations (Items 74 and 75) also were examined.

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[15] Unless otherwise noted, the term "married" refers to respondents who are married with husband present. "Nonmarried" refers to those who are never married, divorced, separated, widowed, and married, husband absent.

Explanatory Variables

From the conceptual framework outlined earlier in this chapter, it is evident that a great many specific attributes of a young woman are likely to have a bearing upon her educational decisions, work plans, and labor market activity and experience. We do not claim that our list of variables is complete, but we do assert that we have considered most of the important ones. Nevertheless, we are aware of limitations that exist in the measurement instruments for some of the characteristics with which we are concerned. For example, we had originally planned to include in the interview schedule a number of formal psychological and sociological tests, since some of the variation that exists in the labor market behavior of individuals undoubtedly stems from differences in personality, temperament, and values. These variables have been largely ignored in labor market research. Although it was not possible to administer such tests in this initial survey, it is hoped that at least some use of them can be made before the study is completed. For example, the third (1970) survey will provide a measure of alienation based upon an abbreviated version of the Rotter Internal-External Scale.[16] In the meantime, we have relied upon a fairly large number of simple attitudinal measures with high face validity. It is worth noting that there have been few, if any, studies involving a national sample that have combined so many attitudinal measures with such detailed work status and work experience data as are included here.

In some cases, considerations of cost and feasibility have limited the kind and amount of information obtained. For example, a high school student's educational aspirations no doubt are influenced to a significant degree by the total school culture to which he is exposed. This embraces not only the formal aspects of the academic organization (e.g., curriculum, qualifications and interests of teachers and counselors, relevant physical facilities and equipment, etc.) but also such informal aspects as the character of peer groups (e.g., codes, norms of behavior, sanctions, rewards, etc.). Thorough examination of this complex of factors would have doubled the length of our interview schedule. Consequently, we were forced to settle for a brief series of questions in which the respondent was asked to indicate school subjects liked and disliked, nature and degree of involvement in extracurricular activities, and her attitude toward her school experience. In addition, a brief questionnaire was mailed to the last high school attended by each respondent to obtain information about her scholastic aptitude or intelligence test scores, grade point average, absenteeism, and disciplinary record. Information about the school, such as organization (e.g., grades K through 12) and control (public or private), enrollment, library facilities, number of full-time teachers, nature of counseling program, and annual per pupil expenditure for the school system, also was solicited in this mailed survey. Later reports will include material from these questionnaires.[17] In short, we have included as many variables as possible and have developed each as well as we could, given the constraints with which we were faced.

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[16] See Julian B. Rotter, "Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement," Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, Vol. 80, No. 1, 1966, pp. 1-28.

Formative influences These include a variety of forces that may have been operative in early youth when attitudes, values, and aspirations were being formed. Age, for example, reflects both the possible impact of environment (e.g., relevance of child labor laws) and the length of potential exposure to the labor force. It also is an especially critical factor in this study, because many of the employment and education decisions which strongly influence subsequent labor market success are made between the ages of 14 and 24. Residence at age 14 (rural, urban, suburban, etc.) (Item 99) is used to measure early cultural influences. Living arrangements at age 14 (Item 100) differentiates between respondents who were reared in a "normal" family environment with both parents present, and those whose early homes were "broken" to some degree. The occupation of father or head of household (Item 101a) and mother (Item 101c) when respondent was 14, and the educational attainment of father (Items 104a and b, 117, 118) mother (Items 106a and b, 117, 118), and oldest living sibling (Items 108a and b, 115-118) are indicators of the socioeconomic status of the respondent's family. A rough measure of the learning quality of the home environment is provided by the access to reading materials at age 14 (Items 102a, b, c).

Marital and familial characteristics These include characteristics of both the family of origin and the family of procreation. Family structure may be expected to have considerable influence upon labor market activity. For example, a young woman with a husband or children may well react differently to a job loss than one who has no immediate family responsibilities. To explore such relationships, we isolated the respondent's marital status (household record sheet) and her relationship to the head of the household (household record sheet). Her parental family was examined in terms of whether or not the respondent is the oldest (living) child in the family (Items 107c, 112, 113); the status (living or deceased) of parents (Item 95); and the number of hours worked (if any) by other family members (Items 103a and b, 105a and b, 119, 120, household record sheet). For the parental family or the respondent's own family, the number of persons (other than parents) with 12 or more years of education was determined (household record sheet). Also type and cost of child-care arrangements were ascertained for working mothers who found it necessary to make such arrangements (Items 59 and 64).

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[17] Results of the 1968 school survey are not yet available for inclusion in this report.

Financial characteristics We hypothesize that financial characteristics will influence a young woman's educational and occupational aspirations, as well as her present labor market activity. Among the financial variables considered were *rate of pay in current (or last) job* (Item 42a); *net assets of her own family* (Items 82-86); and *total income of all family members in 1967* (Item 88a).

Education and training Educational attainment emerges as a key explanatory variable related to occupational assignment and rate of pay; thus, the education and training of the respondents are of considerable interest and importance. For each respondent, educational experience was measured by *current educational status* (Items 1, 2 and 4), and the *number of years of school completed* (Items 2 and 4). The *extent, type, and duration of occupational training received outside regular school* (Items 13, 14, and 15), along with *whether or not the respondent possessed a valid trade or professional certificate* (Item 16), were used to identify other types of training. More detailed data with respect to high school backgrounds include the *type of high school (public or private) attended* (Item 17c); *type of curriculum* (Item 17e) and *whether the respondent took typing and/or shorthand* (Items 18a, b, c); *subjects liked most* (Item 19) *and least* (Item 20); *favorite extracurricular activity* (Item 21g); *activity most frequently engaged in outside school* (Item 22); and *where respondent's homework was done* (Item 21b). A respondent's evaluation of her educational experience is expressed in *reaction to high school experience* (Item 23) and perceptions of the *effects of ending education* (Items 11a and b). The educational aspirations of young girls enrolled in school at the time of the survey show up in the *educational goals of all those enrolled in school* (Items 29a and 30), and are compared with their statements regarding the *amount of education they expect to receive* (Item 31a).

Health and physical condition Respondents were asked whether they had *any activity limitations imposed by health conditions* (Item 70a); that is, they were asked about conditions that either prevent their working or limit the kind or amount of work they can do.

Attitudinal variables Several work and job attitudes which might influence the labor market behavior of the respondent were explored. All respondents were asked whether they believed good wages or liking the work was the *most important thing about a job* (Item 69). Another attitudinal measure is the *attitude toward present job* (Item 52). Each employed respondent was asked to state whether she liked her job very much, liked it somewhat, disliked it somewhat, or disliked it very much. *Reaction to a hypothetical job offer in the same area* (Item 54) *or in some other part of the country* (Item 55) can be used to describe the respondent's attachment to her present employer.

The respondents' perceptions relating to the appropriate role of women in general, and mothers in particular, clearly are of interest here. For example, young women were asked to express their opinions on the ideal age for girls to marry (Item 77). Likewise, in an effort to identify attitudes toward the employment of mothers with pre-school age children, all respondents were asked how they felt about a married woman with several children under school age taking a full-time job outside the home, given that satisfactory child care was available and that her husband had a full-time job (Items 76a, b, and c). In addition, the perceived attitude of husband toward respondent's employment (Items 79 and 80) was determined by asking each married respondent how she thought that her husband felt (or would feel) about her working.

Labor market variables The respondent's success in the labor market can be at least partially attributed to her ability and willingness to maneuver within that market. Those who were unemployed in the survey week were asked their method of looking for work in the last four weeks (Item 37b). Those outside the labor force were asked whether they would take a job if offered (Item 66a), and if so what kind of work it would have to be (Item 66b); what the salary would have to be (Item 66c); and what restrictions (if any) would be a factor in accepting a job (Items 66d and e). Young girls out of the labor force at the time of the survey were also asked when they had last worked (Item 38a); why they were not currently looking for a job (Item 66f); and whether they expected to look for work within the next six months (Item 66g).

Other variables reflecting characteristics of the labor market in which the respondent resides have been examined. Size of the local labor force is the estimated number of persons (as of 1960) in the labor force of the county or Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) in which the individual resides. The local unemployment rate is an estimate for 1967. Local areas have been classified into three categories: those with low rates (less than 3.1 percent); those with moderate rates (3.1 to 5.0 percent); and those with high unemployment rates (5.1 percent or more). A third variable, index of demand for female labor, is based upon the presence or absence in the area of industries that normally provide above-average employment opportunities for women. A final environmental variable is the degree of industrial diversification in the area.

IV PLAN OF ANALYSIS

In the following chapters, through cross-tabular analysis of the variables described above, we attempt to explain the variation in school and labor market experiences and in the educational aspirations of young women. While we would prefer to have included results of both tabular and more refined multivariate analysis, timely reporting has argued in favor of the simpler approach. Later reports will make use of more sophisticated and more powerful statistical techniques, once the data tapes are available to us.

Color (or race) is used as a control throughout the analysis, since we are especially interested in exploring the differential experiences of white and black young girls and in contributing to an increased understanding of the sources of labor market disadvantages suffered by the latter. For the cohort under investigation, marital and family status, school enrollment status, and age are other characteristics which have such a profound influence on labor market activity and are so frequently correlated with other explanatory variables that they generally must be controlled if one is to identify relationships between certain characteristics (e.g., highest year of school completed) and facets of labor market activity (e.g., labor force participation rate). Thus, most of the tables herein either control for the above characteristics or relate to specific subgroups, which is tantamount to having established controls. In effect, then, the tables tend to be at least four-way cross-classifications. For example, labor force participation rates might be shown by marital status, school enrollment status, age, and color. Such tables permit us to determine whether each of these variables is associated with labor force participation independently of the others.

However, frequently even this degree of detail is not enough, since there may be another variable that is known (or suspected) to be correlated with both the dependent variable and one or more of the independent variables. Generally speaking, where there is reason to suppose that two or more explanatory variables associated with some aspect of labor market behavior are intercorrelated and systematically related to the dependent variable, the relation of one of the variables is investigated, controlling for the other. However, it is clearly impossible to carry this process very far. Not only would more complex tables be cumbersome but, more importantly, the small number of sample cases underlying the various entries in the table would make the sampling error so large as to preclude any confident interpretation. Nevertheless, the results of the tabular analysis should go far toward identifying the most influential variables for inclusion in subsequent multivariate analyses of some of the subjects treated in this report.

The next chapter presents a description of selected demographic and educational characteristics of this age-sex cohort. These characteristics are among the important explanatory variables that are used in subsequent chapters to account for variations in the labor market behavior and plans of youth. In Chapter 2, the objective is to examine the distributions of the characteristics and to indicate which intercorrelations seem to be most important. In addition, this chapter serves to introduce the discussions found in Chapters 3 through 5 regarding participation rate and unemployment rate data for both in school and out of school respondents. Further, comparisons are made between our data and those obtained from the CPS in an attempt to ascertain some of the possible influences associated with the methodological differences between the two surveys.

The labor force and employment status of girls enrolled in school is the central topic of Chapter 3. Labor force participation rates, hours worked per week, the incidence of unemployment in 1967, and work-school decisions constitute the primary focus of this analysis. Chapter 4 examines many of the same dimensions of labor force status of young women not enrolled in school. The unemployment experiences of these out of school youth are dealt with separately in Chapter 5. There, characteristics of unemployed 18 to 24 year olds as well as other correlates of unemployment, are discussed. In Chapter 6, several important aspects of the employment experiences of young women in this not enrolled subset are examined. Included are discussions of occupational assignments, hourly rates of pay, child-care costs, and job attachment. Chapter 7 is concerned with the educational aspirations of young 14 to 17 year old girls in elementary and high school. The analysis seeks to identify such aspirations, to assess the extent to which they are realistic, and to determine which demographic, sociological, and educational factors appear to be related systematically to differences in educational goals.

The findings and conclusions of the study are summarized in Chapter 8. On the basis of these findings, various hypotheses which are to be tested with the data collected in subsequent surveys are presented and policy implications are suggested.

V A NOTE ON TABLES

The tables in this report have a number of characteristics that deserve some comment at this point. In a study of this kind, interest generally focuses on relative rather than absolute magnitudes, e.g., on the proportions rather than the numbers of white women and black women who have a given characteristic. Accordingly, data in virtually all tables are presented in terms of percentages. In all cases, however, the base of each percentage is shown, so that its statistical reliability can be estimated. An absolute magnitude can be estimated readily by multiplying the relevant percentage by its base. Cases for which no information was obtained are excluded from the total when calculating percentage distributions. This amounts to assuming that those who did not respond to a particular question do not differ in any relevant respect from those who did, a reasonably safe assumption for most variables.[18] All percentage distributions, therefore, should add up to 100 percent; when they do not, it is because of rounding. It also should be observed that when absolute numbers do not add up to the indicated total, the difference is attributable, unless otherwise noted, to cases for which no information was obtained, as well as to rounding.

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[18] In most cases the number of nonresponses is small. Appendix E presents, for each major variable in the study, the total number of persons in the relevant universe and the number and proportion of persons for whom no information was obtained. Nonresponse rates exceed 10 percent for only a few variables.

Percentages in nearly all tables have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage point. Exceptions are labor force participation and unemployment rates. In any case, to record all percentages to the nearest tenth would clutter the tables unnecessarily and create the impression of a degree of accuracy that does not actually exist. To be statistically significant, differences in percentages in this study generally have to be at least several percentage points; thus, there is little to be gained by expressing percentages to the nearest tenth of a percent.

With rare exceptions, our tables involve at least three-way cross-classifications in which color is one of the variables. Generally, our purpose is to ascertain how an independent variable interacts with all that the color variable may represent--e.g., discrimination in educational and employment opportunities--to "explain" some aspect of labor market behavior. For example, is educational attainment related to unemployment experience in the same way for young black as for young white women? Since we are more interested in this type of question than in the relation between two variables for the total population irrespective of color, most of our tables omit the totals for blacks, whites, and other races combined. It must be mentioned that because of the overwhelming numerical importance of the whites, the distribution of the total population by any variable resembles very closely the distribution of the whites.

Percentages are generally not shown in table cells if the base is fewer than 25 sample cases. In our interpretations, of course, we are mindful of sampling error and, as a rough rule of thumb, we are inclined not to say anything about percentages based upon fewer than 50 sample cases, for sampling error in such cases may be very high. For example, the standard error of a percentage in the neighborhood of 50 is about 10 percentage points when the base is 50 sample cases; for percentages near 5 or 95, the standard error is about 4 percentage points. The reader who wishes to observe the same cautions in interpreting the tables should keep in mind that the "blown up" population figure corresponding to 50 sample cases is approximately 217 thousand for whites and about 78 thousand for blacks.

CHAPTER TWO*

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

In this chapter, we focus on the distribution of some of the variables that describe basic demographic and social characteristics of young women in the sample and on the interrelations among such variables. Our purpose is twofold. First, some of the distributions are of interest in their own right. For example, this is the principal reason for examining extracurricular activities, attitudes toward school, and selected other variables. Second, in subsequent chapters many of the characteristics of respondents described in this chapter will be used to account for variation in the educational plans and in the labor market behavior of young women, and an awareness of the intercorrelations among these variables will help us to avoid erroneous interpretations. If such variables are highly intercorrelated, whatever difference one of them appears to make in some aspect of labor market behavior will generally either overstate or understate its true "effect."

In the first section of this chapter, we explore the interrelations among age, school enrollment, and marital and family status for women in both color groups. In addition, for students, we describe selected dimensions of their educational experiences.[1] In the following section, there is a discussion of educational attainment and the level of occupational skill development among young women not enrolled in school. In section III, we examine several correlates of the educational attainment of out-of-school youth, principally those related to family background and to attitudes toward home and work. The fourth section constitutes a bridge to Chapters 3, 4, and 5, which together provide a detailed analysis of the labor force participation and unemployment experiences of both in-school and out-of-school young women. This fourth section is simply an introduction to that analysis. For both students and nonstudents, labor force participation and unemployment rates measured by this survey are compared to those measured by the Current Population Survey (CPS). A brief summary concludes the chapter.

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* This chapter was written by Jack A. Meyer and John R. Shea.

[1] With few exceptions, analysis of the in-school group is restricted to nonmarried women with no children. Unless otherwise noted, the term "married" refers to respondents who are married with husband present. "Nonmarried" refers to those who are never married, divorced, separated, widowed, and married, husband absent.

I AGE, MARITAL STATUS, AND SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

Age and School Enrollment

An estimated 18.1 million young women between the ages of 14 and 24 were in the civilian, noninstitutional population of the United States as of February 1968. All but 12 percent of these young women are white, and 39 percent of this color group, compared to 43 percent of the blacks, are between the ages of 14 and 17 (Table 2.1). Within the entire cohort, exactly half are enrolled in school, a proportion 10 percentage points smaller than we found in the autumn of 1966 for the comparable age group of young men.[2] As was the case among young men, white girls are more likely than their black counterparts to be enrolled in school even though the former are older, on the average, than the latter. Just over half (51 percent) of the whites, compared to 46 percent of the blacks, were students at the time of the survey. Although intercolor differences in enrollment rates are greatest among those 20 to 21 years of age, they exist within all age categories.

Table 2.1 Age, by Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age

(Percentage distribution)

Age	WHITES	BLACKS	TOTAL(a)
14-15	20	22	20
16-17	19	21	19
18-19	19	19	19
20-21	18	17	18
22-24	24	22	23
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	15,831	2,222	18,204

(a) Includes women of "other races" who are not shown separately.

Educational Experiences of Those Enrolled in School

Age in grade Among nonmarried women enrolled in school, age and grade in school are very closely related. However, in all educational categories a disproportionately large number of black young women are over-age in grade (Table 2.2).[3] For example, of young women enrolled in the ninth grade or below, only 4 percent of the whites, but 13 percent of the blacks are at least 16 years of age. Similarly, black college freshmen are three times as likely as white college freshmen to be at least 20 years of age (22 versus 7 percent).

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[2] Herbert S. Parnes, Robert C. Miljus, Ruth S. Spitz and Associates, Career Thresholds: A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Market Experience of Male Youth 14 to 24 Years of Age, Vol. I (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1969), p. 17.

Table 2.2 Age, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School with No Children

(Percentage distribution)

Age	8 years or less	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	16 years or more	Total or average
	WHITES					
14-15	96	35	0	0		40
16-17	4	60	5	0		34
18-19	0	5	89	35	(a)	15
20-24	0	0	7	65		10
Total percent	100	100	100	100		100
Total number (thousands)	1,706	4,251	682	999	94	7,731
	BLACKS					
14-15	87	29	0	0	---	45
16-17	11	57	4	0	---	36
18-19	2	13	72	55	---	15
20-24	0	1	22	45	---	4
Total percent	100	100	100	100	---	100
Total number (thousands)	317	543	50	56	0	966

(a) Percentage distribution not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Curriculum White high school girls 14 to 17 years of age are considerably more likely than black girls to be enrolled in a college preparatory program of studies--40 percent of the former versus 25 percent of the latter (Table 2.3).[4] Blacks are more likely than whites to be in the "general" curriculum (58 versus 44 percent), and essentially identical fractions of each color group are enrolled in vocational and commercial programs--somewhat less than one in five.

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[3] In the autumn of 1966, black young men were also more frequently overage in grade compared to white men. Ibid., p. 22.

[4] Comparable figures collected two years earlier for white and black young men of the same age were 46 percent and 24 percent, respectively. Ibid., p. 26.

Table 2.3 High School Curriculum, by Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age, Enrolled in High School, with No Children

(Percentage distribution)

High school curriculum	WHITES	BLACKS
Vocational	2	4
Commercial	15	14
College preparatory	40	25
General	44	58
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	5,507	674

High school experience As was the case among young men, relatively few students who have been in high school at least one year report a dislike for their high school experience, and even among them the unfavorable reaction is generally mild (Table 2.4).[5] Approximately 19 of every 20 whites and blacks say that they like their high school experience either "very much" or "fairly well."

The pattern of preferences for courses taken in high school is remarkably similar for black and white youth (Table 2.5).[6] Precisely the same proportions in each color group like humanities and commercial subjects the most (30 and 17 percent, respectively). There are more substantial differences between whites and blacks, however, with respect to high school subject disliked most (Table 2.5). Black youth are somewhat more likely than white to dislike science, while whites are more likely than blacks to dislike humanities and social sciences.

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[5] Girls who had completed at least one year of high school but less than a year of college were asked: "How do (did) you feel about your high school experience? Do (did) you--like it very much? like it fairly well? dislike it somewhat? dislike it very much?"

[6] The group referred to in the preceding footnote was asked: "What high school subject do (did) you enjoy the most?"

Table 2.4 Reaction to High School Experience, by Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in High School 2 to 4, with No Children

(Percentage distribution)

Reaction to high school experience	WHITES	BLACKS
Like it very much	53	61
Like it fairly well	40	35
Dislike it somewhat	6	3
Dislike it very much	1	1
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,028	468

Table 2.5 High School Subject Enjoyed Most and Least, by Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in High School 2 to 4, with No Children

(Percentage distribution)

Subject	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Liked most	Liked least	Liked most	Liked least
Foreign languages	6	4	3	3
Humanities	30	14	30	7
Social science	13	22	15	20
Science	11	12	9	17
Mathematics	11	30	10	32
Commercial	17	4	17	2
Vocational	2	0	4	0
Other	10	4	10	5
None	2	11	1	14
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,028	4,028	468	468

By and large, the intercolor variation in subject matter liked and disliked the most is small in comparison to differences by sex. Furthermore, there is great variation among subject areas in the "net" attitude of respondents. For instance, a larger proportion of girls in both color groups dislike rather than like social science, science, and mathematics. In the case of other subject areas, a larger proportion of respondents like than dislike the subject. In our earlier study of young men, the proportion who preferred foreign languages or humanities was overshadowed by the proportion who disliked these subjects. On the other hand, the proportion who liked social science, other sciences, and vocational subjects was larger than the proportion who disliked these subjects. Finally, nearly equal percentages of the young men liked and disliked mathematics and other subjects.[7]

White and black high school girls are very similar in their pattern of extracurricular activities. Three-fourths of the whites and two-thirds of the blacks participate in such activities; nearly a third of both color groups list sports as their favorite activity, and about one-fourth like music best (Table 2.6).

Table 2.6 Favorite Extracurricular Activity, by Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in High School 2 to 4 with No Children[(a)]

(Percentage distribution)

Favorite extracurricular activity	WHITES	BLACKS
Sports	31	31
Publications	4	4
Dramatics	7	9
Music	23	25
Other clubs	26	23
Other	9	8
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,019	311

(a) Includes only those who participate in extracurricular activities.

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[7] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 27-28.

Marital and Family Status

Young white women 14 to 24 years of age are more likely than their black counterparts to be married--29 versus 22 percent (Table 2.7). However, the proportion of blacks with children exceeds the proportion of whites with children--30 percent of the former compared to 21 percent of the latter. Blacks are more likely than whites to be nonmarried, but to have children; based on interview responses this is true of 13 percent of the blacks but only 3 percent of the whites. The offsetting difference is that white women are more likely than their black counterparts to be married without children. As expected, the probability either of being married or of having children increases with age among those in each color group.

The overall intercolor difference in marital and family status is largely associated with variation among women not enrolled in school.[8] Within this group, whites are more likely than blacks to be married without children, while blacks are more likely to be nonmarried with children, and these relationships hold for each age group for which there are sufficient sample cases to warrant a reasonably confident statement.[9] Age for age, there are no significant intercolor differences in marital and family status among those enrolled in school.

II EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

Highest Year of School Completed

White young women who are not enrolled in school have completed, on the average, more years of school than their black counterparts. This is not surprising, since the school enrollment ratio of blacks historically has been lower than that of whites. While one-fourth of the white girls did not graduate from high school, this is true of almost one-half of the black (Table 2.8). The former are also almost twice as likely as the latter to have attended college (19 versus 11 percent). It is of more than passing interest to compare the educational attainment of the young women to that of out-of-school young men who were 14 to 24 years of age two years earlier. First, a larger fraction of the boys were enrolled in school. At the same time, however, the comparative educational attainment of those no

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[8] Presumably, there are several reasons that only small intercolor differences exist among students. Age is one factor. Also, schools tend to restrict educational opportunities in the case of women with children. There are doubtless other factors as well.

[9] The opposite finding for 14 to 15 year olds could easily be an aberration attributable to sampling variation.

Table 2.7 Marital and Family Status, by School Enrollment Status, Age, and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age

(Percentage distribution)

Marital and family status	Enrolled						Not enrolled						Total or average					
	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-21	22-24	Total or average	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-21	22-24	Total or average	14-15	16-17	18-19	20-21	22-24	Total or average
										WHITES								
Married, no children	0	1	2	8	26	2	(a)	19	19	22	20	20	1	3	12	18	21	11
Nonmarried, no children	100	99	97	88	56	96		57	62	41	23	39	99	95	76	53	26	68
Married, with children	0	0	1	4	14	1		15	15	31	51	35	0	2	9	24	48	18
Nonmarried, with children	0	0	1	1	4	1		9	4	6	6	6	0	1	3	5	6	3
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100		100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,139	2,686	1,203	719	319	8,067	48	321	1,792	2,193	3,409	7,764	3,188	3,007	2,995	2,912	3,728	15,831
										BLACKS								
Married, no children	0	2	2	6	0	1	20	7	6	7	12	9	2	3	5	7	11	5
Nonmarried, no children	99	95	93	80	31	95	48	47	54	41	26	38	96	85	69	45	26	65
Married, with children	0	0	0	12	19	1	4	10	24	30	41	31	0	2	15	28	40	17
Nonmarried, with children	1	3	5	3	50	3	28	37	16	22	22	22	3	10	12	20	23	13
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	448	363	156	40	26	1,033	35	95	258	339	463	1,189	482	458	414	379	489	2,222

(a) Percentage distribution not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

longer in school favors the young women. Among whites who are out of school, one-quarter of the girls, compared to one-third of the boys, did not graduate from high school. The corresponding proportions of blacks are 46 and 57 percent.[10]

Table 2.8 Highest Year of School Completed, by Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Highest year of school completed	WHITES	BLACKS
8 years or less	7	16
9-11 years	18	30
12 years	56	43
13-15 years	12	9
16 years or more	7	2
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	7,764	1,189

Occupational Skills and Certification

Training programs outside regular school Although black young women who are out of school have less formal education than their white counterparts, roughly the same proportions of the two color groups have had occupation-related training outside the regular school system (Table 2.9). Thirty-eight percent of the blacks and 41 percent of the whites have had at least one training experience of this nature.[11] Not surprisingly, the training received by most of the young women in both color groups is clerical or so-called "general" training, while most of the young men participated in skilled manual or professional training (Table 2.10).

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[10] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 23.

[11] Black young men 14 to 24 years old and out of school were found to be only one-half as likely as white young men to have received such training--25 compared to 47 percent. Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 23.

Table 2.9 Extent of Occupational Training Outside Regular School, by Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age with Work Experience Who Are Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Extent of occupational training	WHITES	BLACKS
No training	59	62
1 program	36	31
2 or more programs	5	7
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	6,888	954

Table 2.10 Type of Occupational Training Received, by Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age with Work Experience Who Are Not Enrolled in School, and Who Have Received Some Training Outside Regular School

(Percentage distribution)

Type of occupational training	WHITES	BLACKS
Professional, managerial	11	8
Clerical	49	49
Skilled, semi-skilled manual	3	2
General, other	37	41
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,890	370

In the case of both whites and blacks who have not attended college, there is a strong association between the level of school attainment and the probability of the individual having had training outside regular school (Table 2.11). It is noteworthy that a larger fraction of blacks than whites with only some high school education report vocational training experience. Since higher education is generally vocational (i.e., professional) in nature, it is understandable that a smaller fraction of college graduates than of high school graduates report occupation-related training outside the regular school system.

Table 2.11 Extent of Occupational Training, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Extent of occupational training	8 years or less	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	16 years or more	Total or average
			WHITES			
No training	(b)	69	53	46	67	55
Some training	(b)	31	47	54	33	45
1 program	(b)	29	42	45	30	39
2 or more programs	(b)	2	6	9	3	6
Total percent	(b)	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	98	403	2,593	587	507	4,187
			BLACKS			
No training	85	64	48	53	59	55
Some training	15	36	52	47	41	45
1 program	15	28	45	27	41	36
2 or more programs	0	8	7	20	0	8
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	40	113	299	79	25	556

(a) Includes women enrolled in graduate school who work 35 or more hours per week.

(b) Percentage distribution not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Typing and shorthand in high school While some occupational skills are frequently acquired on the job or in special training centers, it is quite common for young women to learn typing and shorthand while in high school.[12] Employed white women 18 to 24 years of age who have completed high school but have not gone to college are only one-third as likely as their black counterparts to have had neither typing nor shorthand while in school--7 compared to 22 percent (Table 2.12). The overall intercolor difference is largely associated with an absence of shorthand courses in the educational backgrounds of many black respondents, for the proportions of each group that have taken typing only are quite similar. Although there is this intercolor variation among those with 12 years of education, blacks and whites at this level of education are more likely to have had either typing or shorthand than are their counterparts at either higher or lower levels of education. Furthermore, for both color groups, those with 12 years of education are also more likely to have had both typing and shorthand than those with 9 to 11 or 13 to 15 years of education, and it is only at this level of education that the typing-shorthand combination is as prevalent as typing only. Interestingly, the black-white differentials are all but eliminated with additional years of school. That is, the proportions of young black and young white women with 13 to 15 years of education who report having had only typing or who have had both typing and shorthand while in high school are very similar.

Table 2.12 Clerical Courses Completed in High School, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age and Not Enrolled in School Who Attended High School but Who Are Not College Graduates

(Percentage distribution)

Clerical courses completed in high school	WHITES				BLACKS			
	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	Total or average	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	Total or average
No typing or shorthand	35	7	20	13	56	22	19	29
Typing only	45	41	52	43	28	40	59	40
Typing and shorthand	20	52	28	44	14	38	22	30
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands) (a)	421	2,628	679	3,728	116	301	85	502

(a) Includes a few women who have shorthand but no typing.

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[12] Although most of the young women do not have professional or trade certificates, blacks are somewhat more likely to have them than whites (no table is shown).

A number of differences also appear when the typing and shorthand training of the young girls is compared with that of the women aged 30 to 44.[13] For one thing, there are far fewer 18 to 24 year olds who had neither typing nor shorthand while in high school. In addition, both for typing and for typing plus shorthand, intercolor difference is greater in the older cohort; and this is true at each level of educational attainment considered. Data on the whites show that for 12 years and for 13 to 15 years of education a smaller percentage of the 18 to 24 year olds than of the older women have had the typing-shorthand combination, while the percentages for those with 9 to 11 years of education are identical. At the same time, the proportion of blacks with both skills has doubled at 9 to 11 and at 12 years of education, and the percentage with typing only has more than doubled at 13 to 15 years of education.

Desire for Additional Education or Training

A substantial proportion of nonstudents who have not graduated from college indicate that ending their education has hurt them--a view that is particularly prevalent among those who have not graduated from high school. Blacks are much more likely to feel this way than whites--70 versus 40 percent. Moreover, this intercolor difference prevails at each level of educational attainment.

About three-fourths of the whites and nine-tenths of the blacks who are out of school and not college graduates indicate that they would like to get more education or training. Of this group, about three-tenths of both whites and blacks want to get more formal education, while another one-third desire clerical training. The remaining young women want professional, technical, skilled manual, and other types of training.

III CORRELATES OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT: OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

In subsequent chapters we shall invariably control for school enrollment status in seeking the determinants of labor market behavior. Students and nonstudents have such markedly different patterns of labor market behavior that it is desirable to analyze them separately. But if school enrollment status is, in effect, to be regarded as a "determinant" of labor market behavior, we must ask what important factors are related systematically to whether a young woman is in school. One way of answering this question is to examine, for young women who have already left school, the factors associated with the highest year of school they completed.

Family Background

For one or more reasons, the socioeconomic backgrounds of the families in which young women are raised make a considerable difference in how far they progress in school. We turn now to an examination of the relationship between selected background measures and highest year of school completed for women 18 to 24 years old who are not enrolled in school.

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[13] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 145.

Father's education   Especially in the case of young black women, many respondents did not live with their fathers at age 14.[14] Among those in both color groups who did, there is a rather pronounced relationship between the father's educational attainment and how far his daughter has gone in school (Table 2.13). The intergenerational influence of family background on educational attainment appears to be stronger among the blacks than the whites, at least as measured by the proportion of young women completing 12 or more years of education.

Table 2.13   Proportions Having Completed 8 Years of School or Less, 12 Years or More, and 16 Years or More, by Highest Year of School Completed by Father, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age(a) Not Enrolled in School

Highest year of school completed by father	Total number (thousands)	Percent who completed		
		8 years or less	12 years or more	16 years or more
	WHITES			
Unknown	98	(b)	(b)	(b)
8 years or less	2,025	6	72	4
9-11 years	864	1	82	4
12 years	1,493	1	90	8
13-15 years	375	2	95	12
16 years or more	366	0*	98	32
Total or average	5,715	4	80	8
	BLACKS			
Unknown	42	29	28	2
8 years or less	298	12	63	4
9-11 years	73	0	63	6
12 years	68	1	93	2
13-15 years	6	(b)	(b)	(b)
16 years or more	4	(b)	(b)	(b)
Total or average	594	12	63	3

* Percentage is 0.5 or less.

(a) Includes only those women who lived with their fathers when they were age 14 and/or whose fathers were living at the time of the survey.

(b) Percentage not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

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[14] Of nonstudents 18 to 24 years of age with work experience, 84 percent of the whites but only 56 percent of the blacks lived with both natural parents at age 14.

Mother's education The relationship between a young girl's school attainment and that of her mother also tends to confirm the influence of family background. Yet beyond eight years of schooling the education of a black nonstudent's mother seems to make little difference in how far her daughter goes in school although this may be attributable to normal sampling variation (Table 2.14).[15]

Table 2.14 Proportions Having Completed 8 Years of School or Less, 12 Years or More, and 16 Years or More, by Highest Year of School Completed by Mother, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age(a) Not Enrolled in School

Highest year of school completed by respondent's mother	Total number (thousands)	Percent who completed		
		8 years or less	12 years or more	16 years or more
	WHITES			
Unknown	90	(b)	(b)	(b)
8 years or less	1,818	10	69	3
9-11 years	1,175	3	76	5
12 years	2,445	2	88	6
13-15 years	724	3	86	16
16 years or more	271	0*	96	40
Total or average	6,975	5	79	7
	BLACKS			
Unknown	28	31	48	0
8 years or less	386	15	58	2
9-11 years	153	6	70	6
12 years	162	1	75	2
13-15 years	81	14	74	4
16 years or more	15	(b)	(b)	(b)
Total or average	908	12	63	3

* Percentage is 0.5 or less.

(a) Includes only women who lived with their mothers when they were 14 years old and/or whose mothers were living at the time of the survey.

(b) Percentage not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

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[15] We regret that we did not request a separate tabulation for intact families of origin; the effects of family income might be masking any influence of mother's education.

Access to reading materials Whether a youngster had ready access to reading materials at age 14 seems to be a very powerful measure of background influences (Table 2.15).[16] Of white youth who lacked magazines, newspapers, and library cards, four-fifths are no longer students. Within this group over one-third have completed eight years or less of education; only 38 percent have completed 12 years or more. How many of these three sources of information were available in the black youngsters' homes also is related positively to educational attainment, but the correlation is somewhat lower.[17]

Table 2.15 Proportions Having Completed 8 Years of School or Less, 12 Years or More, and 16 Years or More, by Access to Reading Materials at Age 14, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Access to reading materials at age 14	Total number (thousands)	Percent who completed		
		8 years or less	12 years or more	16 years or more
	WHITES			
Had magazines, newspaper, library card	3,820	1	89	11
Lacked any one	2,274	5	75	3
Lacked any two	858	11	57	2
Lacked all three	410	35	38	0
Total or average	7,394	6	78	7
	BLACKS			
Had magazines, newspaper, library card	271	8	77	4
Lacked any one	293	3	67	2
Lacked any two	249	20	54	3
Lacked all three	246	26	37	0*
Total or average	1,060	14	60	2

* Percentage 0.5 or less.

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[16] Respondents were asked whether, when they were 14 years of age, they or their parents regularly received a newspaper and/or magazines and whether they or their parents had a library card.

[17] We have examined the association of school enrollment and educational attainment with several additional measures of family background. While not shown here, girls whose fathers (or heads of household) were white-collar workers when the respondent was 14 years of age are more likely than others to have graduated from high school.

Attitudes toward Work and Home

Motivation to work When asked which factor is more important about any job--good wages or liking the work--the majority of employed young women who are not enrolled in school select the latter.[18] Whites are more likely than blacks to select "liking the work," regardless of level of educational attainment--86 versus 64 percent overall (Table 2.16). The likelihood of selecting "good wages" declines with increasing educational attainment for whites, although the relationship among blacks is less regular.

Table 2.16 Motivation to Work, by Highest Year of School Completed, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Motivation to work	8 years or less	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	16 years or more	Total or average
	WHITES					
Liking the work	73	77	87	87	95	86
Good wages	27	23	13	13	5	14
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	405	1,221	4,303	930	524	7,394
	BLACKS					
Liking the work	57	49	72	66	77	64
Good wages	43	51	28	34	23	36
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	143	283	501	107	25	1,060

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[18] "What would you say is more important to you in deciding what kind of work you want to go into, good wages or liking the work?"

Attitude toward mothers working Among nonstudents, whites are more likely than blacks to oppose labor market activity by married women with children (Table 2.17).[19] While 27 percent of white nonstudents are opposed to mothers working, only 15 percent of their black counterparts report feeling this way. Nineteen percent of whites are permissive about such activities, while this is the case for 28 percent of the blacks. We suspect that in addition to reflecting differences in family incomes, these differences between blacks and whites reflect rather deeply-rooted variation in the role expectations of young women growing up in the two communities. Within each of the color groups, additional years of educational attainment seem to make little difference in degree of permissiveness. While the question was phrased somewhat differently in the first survey of older women, educational attainment was the only variable examined--aside from labor force participation---that displayed even a modest association with permissiveness in that survey.[20]

Table 2.17 Attitude toward Employment of Mothers, by Highest Year of School Completed, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Attitude toward employment of mothers	8 years or less	9-11 years	12 years	13-15 years	16 years or more	Total or average
	WHITES					
Permissive	18	19	19	19	20	19
Ambivalent	61	58	54	50	54	54
Opposed	22	23	28	31	26	27
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	405	1,221	4,303	930	524	7,394
	BLACKS					
Permissive	28	25	29	28	43	28
Ambivalent	49	65	57	50	53	57
Opposed	23	10	14	22	4	15
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	143	283	501	107	25	1,060

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[19] "Now I'd like you to think about a family where there is a mother, a father who works full time, and several children under school age. A trusted relative who can care for the children lives nearby. In this family situation, how do you feel about the mother taking a full time job outside the home?

a. If it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet?
b. If she prefers to work and her husband agrees?
c. If she prefers to work, but her husband doesn't particularly like the idea?"

See Glossary, Appendix A, for responses and scoring procedure.

[20] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 46.

IV SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND LABOR FORCE STATUS: AN INTRODUCTION

The next three chapters of this report present a detailed analysis of the labor force participation and unemployment experiences of young women in the sample. Chapter 3 considers in-school youth exclusively, while Chapters 4 and 5 take up, in turn, the labor force participation and unemployment experience of nonstudents. By way of introduction, this section describes several salient differences in the labor force activities of in-school and out-of-school youth. This opportunity is also used to compare the participation and unemployment rates of women in the longitudinal survey (LGT) with those estimated by the Current Population Survey (CPS) in October 1967, approximately four months prior to the LGT interviews.

Differences in Survey Design

The LGT and CPS surveys reveal essentially the same general patterns of relationship between labor force participation and unemployment rates, on the one hand, and age and school enrollment status, on the other. Nevertheless, in the February LGT both rates tend to be somewhat higher than those in the October CPS. Therefore, it is advantageous to describe a number of the differences in survey design and timing that might account for the disparities. Of course, differences could be attributable simply to sampling variation.

First, in the LGT, information on labor force status is always supplied by the respondent in question. On the other hand, the CPS gathers information about all members of a family from one person in the household, often the housewife. This means that for a single girl living at home, CPS questions are usually answered by the youngster's mother. Second, when two surveys are conducted at different points in time, seasonal factors can cause estimates from the studies to differ; and changes in the overall economic climate between the two periods can likewise result in different estimates. However, with respect to these sources of variation, it should be noted that adjusting the rates from the two surveys for seasonal variation does not substantially alter the differences between the two sets of estimates;[21] moreover, the general economic climate was substantially the same in the two periods under consideration.[22]

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[21] For example, the appropriate seasonal adjustment factors for the unemployment rates of young women 16 to 19 years old are 87.5 for February 1968 and 95.8 for October 1967. Adjusting the LGT (February) and the CPS (October) rates by these factors increases slightly the disparity between the two rates. For some other rates or for other segments of the cohort, seasonal adjustment slightly reduces the CPS-LGT disparity. However, in no case do these adjustments change the direction of the disparity. See Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, Vol. XIV, No. 8, p. 13.

[22] The seasonally adjusted unemployment rates for persons 16 years of age and older were 3.7 in February 1968 and 3.6 in October 1967.

Table 2.18 Labor Force and Employment Status, by School Enrollment Status, Age, and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age
Comparison of Current Population [(a)] and Longitudinal Survey Results

(Numbers in thousands)

School enrollment status and age	WHITES												NEGROES AND OTHER RACES											
	Current Population Survey						Longitudinal Survey						Current Population Survey						Longitudinal Survey					
		Labor force						Labor force						Labor force						Labor force				
					Unemployed						Unemployed						Unemployed						Unemployed	
	Population	Total number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force	Population	Total number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force	Population	Total number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force	Population	Total number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force
Enrolled																								
14-24	8,019	2,047	25.5	1,895	152	7.4	8,067	2,650	32.9	2,389	262	9.7	1,173	251	21.4	199	52	20.7	1,130	311	27.2	236	75	26.8
14-15	3,142	483	15.4	469	14	2.9	3,139	800	25.5	765	35	4.3	493	42	8.5	31	11	(b)	478	69	14.2	38	32	44.5
16-24	4,877	1,564	32.1	1,426	138	8.8	4,928	1,850	37.5	1,624	227	12.3	680	209	30.7	168	41	19.6	652	241	37.5	198	44	16.6
16-17	2,628	769	29.3	695	74	9.6	2,686	958	35.7	833	126	13.2	400	73	18.2	56	17	(b)	391	109	27.8	92	17	13.2
18-19	1,226	359	29.3	326	33	9.2	1,203	418	34.8	372	46	10.9	164	74	45.1	57	17	(b)	175	82	46.6	65	18	21.9
20-21	747	258	34.5	231	27	10.5	719	286	39.8	250	36	12.6	77	44	57.1	37	7	(b)	51	31	60.9	25	6	(c)
22-24	276	178	64.5	174	4	2.2	319	187	58.7	168	19	10.4	39	18	(b)	18	0	(b)	36	20	(c)	17	3	(c)
Not enrolled																								
14-24	7,815	4,418	56.5	3,999	419	9.5	7,764	4,739	61.0	4,249	490	10.3	1,200	662	55.2	545	117	17.7	1,245	743	60.3	609	134	17.9
14-15	48	11	(b)	8	3	(b)	48	12	(c)	7	6	(c)	19	3	(b)	2	1	(b)	36	10	(c)	1	8	(c)
16-24	7,767	4,407	56.7	3,991	416	9.4	7,716	4,727	61.3	4,242	484	10.2	1,181	659	55.8	543	116	17.6	1,208	734	60.6	609	126	17.6
16-17	379	174	45.9	137	37	21.3	321	157	48.8	118	38	24.4	86	26	30.2	19	7	(b)	95	35	37.4	30	6	(c)
18-19	1,770	1,144	64.6	986	158	13.8	1,792	1,188	66.3	1,034	154	13.0	291	167	57.4	114	53	31.7	281	174	61.9	138	36	20.8
20-21	2,166	1,315	60.7	1,211	104	7.9	2,193	1,389	63.3	1,263	126	9.2	321	193	60.1	160	33	17.1	347	195	56.0	158	37	18.1
22-24	3,452	1,774	51.4	1,657	117	6.6	3,409	1,993	58.5	1,827	165	8.4	483	273	56.5	250	23	8.4	486	330	68.1	283	48	14.0

(a) U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment of School Age Youth," Special Labor Force Report No. 98, October 1968, Tables A and C.

(b) Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

(c) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 50 sample cases.

Third, the two samples cover somewhat different age groups. Inclusion within the cohort 14 to 24 years of age was based on attained age as of October 1967 for the CPS, but on attained age as of January 1, 1968, for the LGT. Hence, minimum and maximum ages for the LGT sample are lower than those in the CPS by about three months. Finally, all of the young women in the LGT were interviewed for the first time, whereas this was the case for only about one-eighth of the respondents in the CPS. There is evidence from the CPS that responses vary among segments of the sample depending upon whether the respondent is newly entering the sample or is being reinterviewed. Specifically, labor force participation rates and unemployment rates tend to be higher among that portion of the sample being interviewed for the first time than among those being reinterviewed.

At this time, we reserve judgment about the extent to which the above sources of difference account for the disparity between our estimates and those produced by the CPS. We shall simply point out the nature and magnitude of the differences.

Labor Force Participation Rates

With the important exceptions of nonstudents in their twenties and students in their late teens, labor force participation rates among both those enrolled and those not enrolled increase rather dramatically with age (Table 2.18). Moreover, controlling for age, teenage girls who are in school are less likely to be in the labor force than their counterparts who are not enrolled. The same may be said for white young women 20 to 21 years old. In the LGT, however, female students beyond age 21 are as likely as nonstudents to be in the labor force; and the same general pattern appears to hold among Negroes and other races, beginning at age 20.[23]

Labor force participation rates generated by the LGT exceed those derived from the CPS; this was also found to be the case in an earlier study of the labor market experience of young men.[24] The differences in rates are slightly greater among students than among nonstudents, as Table 2.18 reveals. For students, the differences diminish with age, but this is not the case for nonstudents. For example, among white 14 to 15 year olds enrolled in school, the LGT participation rate is 10 percentage points greater than the CPS rate, but among white 22 to 24 year old students, the former is 6 percentage points smaller than the latter. On the other hand, among nonstudents, the 7 percentage point difference between the two rates for 22 to 24 year old young women is greater than any of the corresponding differences among younger women. In contrast to the patterns for young men, where blacks showed more pronounced differences than whites, variations among young women are not consistently more pronounced for one color group than for the other.

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[23] The rates in Table 2.18 are for whites and nonwhites, i.e., Negroes and other races; the deviation from the usual practice in this volume of comparing whites and blacks is prompted by a desire to concentrate on LGT-CPS comparisons.

[24] Parnes, *et al.*, *Career Thresholds*, Vol. I, p. 49.

Unemployment

While there are again differences in the two sets of estimates, both surveys reveal rather consistent overall relationships among unemployment rates, school enrollment status, and age. Specifically, with the possible exception of black girls 14 to 15 years of age, unemployment rates among the students remain virtually constant or increase slightly with age up to age 22. On the other hand, among the nonstudents unemployment rates decline from age 16 onward.[25]

The LGT estimates of unemployment rates exceed the CPS estimates for students and nonstudents in both color groups. However, as is the case with participation rates, the differences are more pronounced among students than among nonstudents, and this is true for both color groups. The difference between the estimates for white students is greatest among those 22 to 24 years old; our estimate of the unemployment rate for this group is almost five times the CPS estimate (10.4 percent versus 2.2 percent). This relative difference is very similar to the one reported earlier for young men of college age and may be attributable to a lack of parental information concerning what their sons and daughters of college age are doing.

V SUMMARY

Approximately one-half of the young women 14 to 24 years of age are enrolled in school. Enrollment rates are slightly higher for whites than for blacks, and both color groups have lower enrollment rates than their male counterparts had two years earlier. Black youngsters in the sample are somewhat younger, on the average, than white, but among those enrolled in school the former are more likely than the latter to be over-age in grade. Nearly one in five high school girls is participating in either a commercial or a vocational curriculum. Black girls are found less frequently in college preparatory programs than are their white counterparts--25 versus 40 percent. The remainder within each color group are enrolled in the so-called "general" curriculum. Nearly all (19 out of 20) who are enrolled like their high school experience. There is little intercolor variation in subject matter most liked and disliked, but the girls express preferences which diverge in important ways from those expressed by their male counterparts in 1966. Contrary to the pattern among young men, larger proportions of girls dislike rather than like social sciences, physical sciences, and mathematics. Black girls are somewhat less likely than white to participate in extracurricular activities. In over half the cases, sports or music is mentioned as the favorite activity by those who do participate.

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[25] Inadequate sample cases prevent a statement about 14 and 15 year olds.

Since whites are slightly older, on the average, than blacks in the sample, it is not surprising that a larger proportion of the former than of the latter are married--29 compared to 22 percent. Nevertheless, relatively more of the blacks have children--30 versus 21 percent. More than one-fifth (22 percent) of the out-of-school blacks are nonmarried but have children; this fact, plus the offsetting tendency of white women to be married and without children, accounts for practically all of the overall intercolor difference in family status. Nearly all of the students--96 percent of the whites and 95 percent of the blacks--are nonmarried and without children.

Young women are less likely than young men to attend college, but on the other hand they are less likely to be school dropouts prior to high school graduation. In other words, there is less variation among young women than among young men in highest year of school completed. Nonetheless, of the young women not enrolled in school, nearly half of the blacks (46 percent) and one-fourth of the whites completed 11 or fewer years of education. Thus, it is especially noteworthy that comparable proportions of each color group participated in one or more training programs outside regular school--approximately two-fifths. Nearly half of the training was clerical, and, until the college level is reached, training experiences are positively related to years of schooling completed. Of the young women 18 to 24 years of age with work experience who attended high school, most report having had typing in high school--86 percent of the whites and 65 percent of the blacks. Forty-two and 26 percent of these two color groups, respectively, had shorthand. This represents a substantial increase in this type of occupational skill development over that reported by women 30 to 44 years of age in 1967 for the blacks and a slight decrease for the whites. White young women are also more likely than black to have either a professional or a trade certificate, although the proportions are rather low in both cases (14 compared to 5 percent).

Many family background factors are related to the number of years of school completed by those young women no longer enrolled. While there are some differences in the strength of the relationships, the probability of a girl's having completed at least 12 years of education is positively associated with the educational attainment of her father and mother, the occupation of the head of her household when she was 14 years of age, and with other measures of her family's socioeconomic status. Access to reading material in the home at an early age is the variable with the greatest predictive power. Those who lacked a newspaper, magazines, and a library card are much less likely than others to have gone beyond the eighth grade. The simple correlation is especially strong in the case of the white young women.

The attitudes manifested by black girls about their future roles and the world of work appear to be significantly different from the attitudes of white youth. Blacks are more likely than whites to look favorably on the propriety of mothers working. Compared with whites, "good wages" are more frequently seen by blacks as being more important in any job than "liking the work." Yet, almost nine-tenths of the whites and over three-fifths of the blacks say that liking the work is the more important motivator.

By way of introduction to the next three chapters, it is worth noting that patterns of labor force participation and unemployment differ between young women who are students and those who are not enrolled in school. Of course, underlying these differences are age and marital (and family) status effects. Specifically, controlling for age, participation rates tend to be higher for nonstudents than for students until the early twenties are reached, where the influence of marital and family status seems to override that of school attendance. At the same time, these rates increase with age through the teenage years. Unemployment rates, on the other hand, change very little with age for those in school, but decline dramatically with age among nonstudents.

Estimates of unemployment and labor force participation rates based on the LGT generally exceed estimates based on the CPS even after adjustment for seasonal variation. However, there are differences in sample design which could account for these disparities.

CHAPTER THREE*

LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF STUDENTS

I INTRODUCTION AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

To some extent the decision by young women whether to participate in productive economic activity or to devote their time to being students is constrained by society, viz., compulsory school-attendance statutes and child labor laws. Yet, these constraints are not uniform across the country and they only apply within certain age limits. Furthermore, it is possible for young women to participate in the labor force while pursuing a formal education on a full-time basis. Consequently, there is still considerable room for choice regarding the major life-activity. This report does not treat the work-school decision as an all-or-nothing one but, for purposes of exposition, accepts part of it as given. That is, our analysis of labor force and employment status presupposes that those who were enrolled in school at the time for the survey are essentially different from those who were not enrolled. This chapter is devoted to those who were enrolled in February 1968. Chapters 4 and 5 consider young women who were out of school at that time.

The economic theory of labor supply underlies our search for the correlates of labor market activity. This is especially so in the following chapter, where the labor force participation of nonstudents is examined, but to some extent in this one as well. This theory recognizes that an individual's decision to work outside the home is made in the context of the total set of labor market decisions of other family members, and depends on attitudes and preferences as well as upon economic considerations. More specifically, the numerous factors that are conceived to influence the amount of labor an individual will wish to offer may be classified into four categories: (1) attitudes toward work; (2) expected rate of earnings in the labor market; (3) the implicit value of the family of household services (e.g., babysitting for younger siblings); and (4) the family's financial and human resources.[1] To illustrate, the theory suggests that, other things being equal, the probability of labor force participation by a young woman in school will be higher (1) the more favorably disposed she is toward working outside the home; (2) the higher the wage rate she can command in the labor market; (3) the lower the need for her services at home; and (4) the lower the income of the family (excluding her own contributions).

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* This chapter was written by Andrew I. Kohen.

[1] For a fuller elaboration, see William Bowen and T. Aldrich Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1969), Chapter 2.

The interview schedule provides several measures of labor supply. The first of these is whether the respondent was in the labor force in the survey week, which permits us to compare the conventionally-defined labor force participation rates of groups with different characteristics. A second is whether the individual ever worked, which provides the possibility of calculating a type of life-time labor force participation rate.[2] This measure is shown in several appendix tables. Finally, as a measure of intensity of activity, we measure the number of hours actually worked during the survey week.[3]

We have chosen to subdivide the cohort of young women students into two groups, i.e., those 14 to 17 years of age and those 18 to 24 years of age. The principal reasons for doing so are based on two institutional characteristics of American society. First, the younger group is virtually a perfect representation of female high school students.[4] These girls have much less freedom of choice than college students with respect to participation in the labor force because (1) hours of attendance are less flexible in high school than in college and (2) the skills which high school girls can offer in the labor market may be more limited than those of their counterparts enrolled in college. Second, age 18 is often used in child labor legislation as the critical age for expansion of types of jobs that legally can be held by minors.

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[2] This, of course, excludes individuals who may have unsuccessfully sought work, and is therefore not a conceptually pure measure of supply. Also, it should be noted that the individual had to have worked at a job for at least two weeks to be included.

[3] Although not presented in this chapter, a fourth measure of participation is the number of weeks of labor force activity in 1967.

[4] Less than 1 percent of this group are in college; and the group constitutes about 95 percent of all female high school students. Unfortunately, the 18 to 24 year old group is somewhat less homogeneous, since about 15 percent of them are enrolled in high school and the other 85 percent are college students.

The voluminous empirical literature concerning the supply of labor contains only passing references to female students 14 to 24 years of age.[5] Moreover, the few investigations which do consider this group offer conflicting evidence on the determinants of labor force participation. For example, in separate studies Bernert and Korbel reach quite different conclusions regarding the effect of age-grade retardation on the labor force participation of teenage girls.[6] As a result, there are few firm theoretical or empirical antecedents with which to compare the implications of the data discussed below. The next section of this chapter considers the survey week labor force participation of female students of high school age, i.e., those 14 to 17 years old. Section III is concerned with the same measure of labor force status for the counterpart group 18 to 24 years of age. In the fourth section, there is a brief statement of the number of hours worked by all female students during the survey week. Section V is devoted to a consideration of the incidence of unemployment among young women enrolled in school.

II VARIATION IN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION, STUDENTS 14 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE [7]

Age and Color

A pronounced positive relationship between age and labor force participation rate is evident for both color groups among high school students 14 to 17 years of age (Table 3.1). This association undoubtedly

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[5] For example, Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, devote fewer than 15 of their 626 pages of text to this age-sex cohort as opposed to more than 70 pages in which they consider the counterpart male group of students. Another example in which nearly the entire focus is on males is Robert Lerman, An Analysis of Youth Labor Force Participation, School Activity, and Employment Rates (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1969).

[6] Eleanor H. Bernert, America's Children (New York: Wiley and Sons, 1958); John Korbel, "Labor Force Entry and Attachment of Young People," Journal of the American Statistical Association (March 1966), p. 117-27.

[7] All references are to those in the marital status category of "nonmarried, no children" who constitute 99 percent of the total group. The other 1 percent is divided among several marital status categories, no one of which contains enough sample cases for analysis. We omit the latter group from tables and consideration because of substantial evidence on the important effect which marital status has on labor market activity.

Table 3.1 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Selected Measures of Educational Experience and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in High School(a)

Age and measures of educational experience	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
Grade attending				
14-15	2,915	25.9	346	15.0
9th	1,420	24.1	187	9.2
10th and above	1,484	27.6	159	21.8
16-17(b)	2,622	36.0	331	29.9
9th	42	(c)	21	(c)
10th and above	2,572	36.1	310	31.8
High school curriculum				
14-15	2,915	25.9	346	15.0
General	1,434	23.2	205	13.3
Vocational or commercial	364	28.6	38	8.1
College preparatory	929	30.0	79	25.4
16-17(b)	2,622	36.0	331	29.9
General	905	33.6	170	25.6
Vocational or commercial	497	41.5	77	39.3
College preparatory	1,212	35.5	83	25.4
Clerical courses completed				
14-15	2,915	25.9	346	15.0
Typing only	924	24.7	86	13.5
Other(d)	67	(c)	24	(c)
None	1,754	25.5	236	16.0
16-17(b)	2,622	36.0	331	29.9
Typing only	1,157	38.9	180	34.1
Typing and shorthand	632	39.2	37	36.5
Other(e)	21	(c)	4	(c)
None	790	30.6	109	19.5

(a) Includes only those women with no children.

(b) Includes a few women who were college freshman.

(c) Percentages not shown when based on fewer than 25 sample cases.

(d) Includes typing and shorthand, shorthand only, bookkeeping, operation of business machines, etc.

(e) Includes shorthand only, bookkeeping, operation of business machines, etc.

reflects several forces including (1) the greater range of job opportunities legally available to 16 and 17 year olds compared to 14 and 15 year olds; (2) the decrease in parental restraints on work activity which accompanies maturation; and (3) the additional education attained by the older group. Interestingly, the positive effect of age is stronger among blacks than whites. The participation rate of 16 and 17 year olds is twice that of the 14 and 15 year olds among black girls, while the corresponding proportion among white girls is only one-and-two-fifths.

Our data indicate that white girls attending high school are substantially more likely than their black counterparts to be in the labor force (Table 3.1). Although an intercolor difference in the same direction has been observed among the corresponding group of male students, its magnitude was small.[8] Rather than speculate about the sources of the observed differential, we defer discussion of it to the ensuing portions of this chapter where we will be able to confront some of our hypotheses with the data. At those points we also will consider the explanations offered by other investigators who have observed a similar intercolor difference.

Educational Experiences and Attainment

There is some evidence that grade in school may exert an influence independent of age upon the likelihood of a student being in the labor market (Table 3.1). Among 14 and 15 year old black girls, those in the tenth through twelfth grades have a participation rate two-and-one-half times that of those in the ninth grade. Among whites the difference is in the same direction but much smaller. In addition, for both color groups there is some evidence that part of what appears as an effect of age is attributable to education. That is, the total differences in participation rates between these 14 to 15 and those 16 to 17 are larger than the corresponding differences by age among girls enrolled in the tenth through twelfth grades. Finally, the intercolor difference in labor force participation is partially explainable by differences in educational attainment, even though it persists within categories of grades. For example, among 14 and 15 year olds the intercolor difference in rates is 15 percentage points for freshmen but only 6 percentage points among girls in their sophomore-senior years;[9] and black girls in this age category are somewhat more likely than white girls to be in the ninth grade.

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[8] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 52.

[9] It should be recognized, however, that these differences may in reality be age-related; that is, they may be primarily a reflection of the differences between 14 and 15 year olds.

Although there are considerable differences by age and color in the distribution of girls among high school curricula, these differences add little to an understanding of interage and intercolor disparities in participation rates. In each curriculum older girls are more likely than younger ones, and whites more likely than blacks, to be in the labor force (Table 3.1). On the other hand, the interage differences in participation rates are much smaller among girls enrolled in a college-preparatory program; indeed, among blacks the rates are precisely the same (25.4 percent) for those 14 and 15 as for those 16 and 17 years of age. While 14 and 15 year old female high school students who are college bound actually exhibit a greater inclination to be in the labor force than those who are not headed for college, the situation is reversed at age 16 to 17. In any case, the negative association of enrollment in the college preparatory curriculum and labor force participation rates is much less clear than that which prevailed in 1966 within the corresponding groups of males,[10] reflective, in part, of differences in family expectations with respect to boys compared to girls.

A final aspect of the educational experience of girls in high school which is related to variation in labor market activity is whether they have had courses in typing or shorthand. Students 16 and 17 years of age who have completed courses in typing or in typing and shorthand have higher rates of participation than those who have not had such training (Table 3.1). Furthermore, within the older age group a significant intercolor difference in participation rates appears only among those with no such clerical training. The same observations cannot be made, and should not be expected, for the younger group since the applicability of those skills to the types of jobs available to girls under 16 years of age is limited.

Family Background

There is considerable evidence that labor force participation rates of girls in high school vary substantially by family background, or socioeconomic status. Participation rates for three of the four age-color groups are higher among girls in urban areas than among those living in rural areas (Table 3A-2).[11] However, the difference is most pronounced in the comparison between girls with rural origins and those who lived in cities of 2,500 to 100,000 inhabitants. Although interage and intercolor differences persist after controlling for area of residence, their magnitudes do vary. The intercolor difference among 14 and 15 year olds is wider for girls from urban areas than for those from rural areas; however, the participation rates of white and black 16 and 17 year olds are more similar among those from cities than among girls with rural origins.

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[10] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I., p. 52-54.

[11] Definition of background as "rural" or "urban" is based on respondent's place of residence at age 14.

The data also indicate that the labor force participation of young female students is strongly and positively associated with that of their mothers when the girls were age 14 (Table 3A-2). The observed relationship between mother's and daughter's labor force activity may be the result of a variety of factors. For example, three possible, but not mutually exclusive explanations are that: (1) it may represent role-copying behavior on the part of teenage girls; (2) it may represent the fact that employed mothers directly aid their daughters in securing employment; and (3) it may represent the fact that both mother and daughter are secondary workers responding to the low income of the household head or to the same set of local labor market conditions.

Finally, when we measure family socioeconomic status in terms of a young girl's access to several forms of reading material, those whose families ranked at the higher socioeconomic levels exhibit much higher participation rates. Within each age-color group, the labor force participation rates of those who had magazines, newspapers, and a library card in their homes at age 14 are about 10 percentage points higher than the rates for girls who lacked two or three of these items. At the current time it is not possible to ascertain the extent to which the influence of this measure of social class is independent of the effect of mother's labor force activity, job opportunities in the local labor market, and other variables.

Participation Rates and Other Measures of Labor Supply

Survey week participation rates provide an incomplete and inaccurate picture of intercolor and interage differences in the amount of labor supplied by teenage girls. Intercolor supply differences are overstated in the sense that among 14 to 15 year olds, employed black girls worked, on the average, almost 25 percent more hours in the survey week than their white counterparts--9.8 hours as compared to 8.0 hours (Table 3.2). On the other hand, interage differences are understated in both color groups because the older girls work more hours, on the average, than the younger ones. Perhaps the most revealing feature of the data in Table 3.2 is that the intercolor difference in participation rates among 14 and 15 year old girls in high school may be largely a result of a "discouraged worker" effect--i.e., where high unemployment in a subset of the labor force discourages persons from seeking jobs. Here, the staggering amount of unemployment among the youngest black girls is probably a strong deterrent to labor force entrance among that group,

Table 3.2 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in High School(a)

Age	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Number at work in survey week (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week
	WHITES				
14-15	2,915	25.9	3.9	727	8.0
16-17(b)	2,622	36.0	13.3	776	12.6
	BLACKS				
14-15	346	15.0	48.0	33	9.8
16-17(b)	331	29.9	14.4	84	12.5

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Includes a few women who are enrolled as college freshmen.

Table 3.3 Survey Week Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Weeks Worked in 1967, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age with Work Experience Enrolled in School(a)

Age and number of weeks worked in 1967	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
14-15	1,278	62.2	154	43.4
Less than 14	454	43.4	105	33.4
0-6	219	49.2	60	25.9
7-13	235	38.1	45	43.5
14-39	479	70.7	32	52.0
40-52	340	75.9	18	(b)
16-17	1,505	62.5	201	50.2
Less than 14	573	42.0	124	32.3
0-6	262	40.4	61	30.6
7-13	311	43.4	63	34.0
14-39	562	67.0	51	70.9
40-52	370	89.7	26	95.8

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Percentage not computed where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

whereas their white counterparts face no such discouragement.[12] Additional manifestations of this discouragement effect can be seen in Table 3.3. More than three-fifths of the younger white girls with work experience were in the labor force during the survey week compared to less than one-half of the corresponding group of black girls. Finally, there is a strong, consistently positive association between survey week participation rate and number of weeks worked during 1967 among young female students (Table 3.3).

III VARIATION IN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION, STUDENTS 18 TO 24 YEARS OF AGE

Color, Age, and Marital and Family Status

As was found to be true among girls enrolled in high school, female college students exhibit considerable variation in labor force participation by several demographic characteristics. While small sample sizes prohibit a definitive statement, there is some evidence that in contrast to black students of high school age, those between 18 and 24 years of age are somewhat more likely than their white counterparts to be in the labor force (Table 3.4). Furthermore, this is a reversal of the intercolor difference among male youth 18 to 24 years of age.[13] The data here indicate that participation rates increase with age. Among white young women the rate for those 22 to 24 years of age is 24 percentage points higher than the rate for girls 18 and 19. As will be considered in more detail below, this age effect is not related to the fact that the younger group is a less perfect representation of college students than the older group is--i.e., to the fact that about one-fifth of the former as compared to only one-twelfth of the latter are enrolled in high school. Since the very small number of sample cases of students whose marital and family status is other than "nonmarried with no children" creates uncertainty about the impact of marital and family status upon the labor force participation of female students, the remainder of this chapter considers only those who are nonmarried and have no children.

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[12] Bowen and Finegan draw the same conclusion and go further to speculate that the differential in discouragement results from racial discrimination by employers. Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, pp. 403-04.

[13] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 50.

Educational Experience

Not surprisingly, the aspect of a female college student's educational experience which shows the strongest relationship to the probability of her being in the labor force is whether or not she is enrolled as a full time student (Table 3.5). This aspect probably reflects two separate forces which operate in the same direction to affect labor market participation. First, a part-time student faces a wider range of job opportunities because of the greater number of hours she can work. Second, those enrolled on a part-time basis are probably disproportionately represented among graduate students--e.g., public school teachers who are pursuing permanent certification. The data in Table 3.6 imply that the only significant variation in labor force participation by years of school completed occurs between white undergraduate and graduate students. Moreover, the apparently greater inclination of college students 20 years of age and older vis-a-vis those under 20 to be in the labor market is partly attributable to the fact that about one-eighth of the older group are in graduate school while none of the younger group have completed a baccalaureate program. These findings appear to be strikingly dissimilar to the results of a study of male students, although the two studies are not strictly comparable due to the different ways in which they categorize the year-in-school variable.[14] To the extent that the apparent dissimilarities in participation rates between the studies are real, however, they may result from there being less financial aid available for women than for men who are pursuing a graduate education.

Two measures of a young woman's high school experience which were expected to be related to her labor force activity while in college are the curriculum which she followed and the clerical courses which she completed. Any conclusions regarding the curriculum measure must be very tentative because of the small number of girls who pursued anything other than a college preparatory program. There is some evidence that white students who were in college preparatory curricula have lower participation rates, while there is no clear evidence that obtaining clerical skills in high school leads to higher work force participation by young women enrolled in college (Table 3A-4).

Family Background

Although young women in college are more homogeneous than high school girls with respect to family background, there is evidence that socioeconomic status differences influence their labor force participation. White young women whose fathers were in blue-collar occupations when the girls were 14 have participation rates higher than those whose fathers

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[14] Men in their senior year and/or graduate school were shown to have lower participation rates than those in the freshman-junior years. Ibid., pp. 52-53.

Table 3.4 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Marital and Family Status, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School

Age and marital and family status	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
18-19	1,203	34.8	156	41.7
Married, no children	24	(a)	2	(a)
Nonmarried, no children	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
All with children	18	(a)	8	(a)
20-21	719	39.8	40	62.5
Married, no children	53	(a)	2	(a)
Nonmarried, no children	629	38.4	31	54.8
All with children	36	(a)	6	(a)
22-24	319	58.7	26	51.5
Married, no children	82	(a)	0	--
Nonmarried, no children	175	62.8	8	(a)
All with children	62	(a)	18	(a)
18-24	2,241.	39.8	222	46.6
Married, no children	159	55.9	4	(a)
Nonmarried, no children	1,967	38.6	184	44.4
All with children	117	38.1	33	48.9

(a) Percentage not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.5 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, School Enrollment Status, and Color: Nonmarried Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School(a)

Age and school enrollment status	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
Full-time	1,099	32.5	139	38.5
Part-time	49	(b)	5	(b)
20-24	805	43.8	39	61.3
Full-time	651	32.0	30	49.8
Part-time	148	93.3	9	(b)
18-24	1,967	38.6	184	44.4
Full-time	1,750	32.3	169	40.5
Part-time	197	88.4	15	(b)

(a) Includes only women with no children.
(b) Percentages not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.6 Labor Force Participation Rates by Age, Grade Attending, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School(a)

Age and grade attending	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
High school	204	36.5	78	38.8
College	955	34.7	67	41.2
1 year	606	33.9	36	48.9
2-4 years	349	36.1	31	32.3
20-24	805	43.8	39	61.3
High school	15	(b)	3	(b)
College	790	43.4	36	66.0
1 year	46	(b)	11	(b)
2-4 years	651	38.4	25	60.7
5 years or more	94	59.0	0	---
18-24	1,967	38.6	184	44.4
High school	219	38.3	81	37.4
College	1,745	39.4	103	49.9
1 year	652	39.2	47	55.6
2-4 years	1,000	37.6	56	45.0
5 years or more	94	59.0	0	---

(a) Includes only nonmarried women who have no children.
(b) Percentages not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

were in any other major occupational category, except in the case of 18 to 19 year old whites whose fathers were service or farm workers or 20 to 24 year olds whose fathers were in professional occupations (Table 3A-5). When we measure social class in terms of the young woman's exposure to various types of reading material during her early teenage years, we find that within each age group, those who have greatest access to reading material have highest participation rates.

Another interesting observation, consistent with the pattern among high school girls, is that the rate of labor force participation among those whose mothers worked when the girls were 14 is higher than the rate among those whose mothers were not employed. Finally, there is evidence that white college students with big-city origins are more likely to participate in the labor force than their counterparts from either small cities or rural areas. Unfortunately, we are unable to control for graduate versus undergraduate status while considering the relationship between labor force participation and the several measures of family background. Thus, it is not clear to what extent these variables exert independent influences, since there is undoubtedly a positive association between some of these characteristics and the likelihood of a young woman continuing her education beyond the bachelor's degree.

Participation Rates and Other Measures of Labor Supply

As was also true among girls of high school age, the interage differences in survey week labor force participation rates among female college students understate the actual differences in labor supplied, because younger students tend to work fewer hours per week. For example, among whites those under 20 years of age work about six fewer hours per week than do those 20 and older (Table 3A-1). Focusing on those college students with work experience, irrespective of age or color, participation rates show significant positive variation with the number of weeks actually employed during 1967 (Table 3.7). However, it is clear that neither weeks nor hours of employment are entirely independent of full-or part-time enrollment status, whose relationship to survey week participation rate has been discussed above.

IV VARIATION IN HOURS WORKED IN THE SURVEY WEEK, STUDENTS 14 TO 24 YEARS OF AGE

To some extent the previously described positive association between age and hours worked represents a relationship between hours of work and level of schooling completed. As is evident from Table 3.8, the difference between female white students 18 to 19 years of age and those 20 to 24 is entirely attributable to the fact that only one-tenth of the former as compared to two-fifths of the latter were enrolled in school on a part-time basis. That is, there is no effect of age on hours worked in the survey week among women between 18 and 24 who were full-time students.

Table 3.7 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Weeks Worked in 1967, and Color: Nonmarried Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School with Work Experience(a)

Age and number of weeks worked in 1967	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
18-19	977	41.6	113	51.3
0-6	181	21.1	25	9.2
7-13	239	8.0	33	19.6
14-26	208	49.8	22	(b)
27-49	223	63.2	14	(b)
50-52	118	86.0	20	(b)
20-24	743	47.3	37	64.9
0-6	135	12.5	8	(b)
7-13	139	15.4	2	(b)
14-26	132	42.1	1	(b)
27-49	163	63.6	13	(b)
50-52	169	91.6	12	(b)

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Percentages not computed when the base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.8 Mean Hours Worked in Survey Week, by Age, School Enrollment Status, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age at Work in the Survey Week(a)

Age and school enrollment status	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked
14-15	693	8.0	25	8.7
Full-time	693	8.0	24	(b)
Part-time	0	(b)	2	(b)
16-17	776	12.6	82	12.3
Full-time	740	12.0	78	11.7
Part-time	27	(b)	5	(b)
18-19	362	16.5	41	14.4
Full-time	317	14.2	38	13.5
Part-time	36	(b)	2	(b)
20-24	303	22.7	19	(b)
Full-time	174	14.3	10	(b)
Part-time	125	33.0	9	(b)

(a) Includes only women who are enrolled in school and have no children.
(b) Means not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

As was anticipated, within age groups there are variations in hours of work by several types of job characteristics, particularly among girls 14 to 17 years of age. In general, longer hours tend to be associated with white-collar employment (primarily clerical and sales) and jobs in the wholesale and retail trade industry group (Table 3A-6). In addition, there is some evidence that longer hours are associated with higher hourly rates of pay--i.e., that the supply curve is upward sloping (Table 3.9).[15]

Table 3.9 Mean Hours Worked in Survey Week, by Hourly Rate of Pay: Nonmarried White Women 16 and 17 Years of Age Enrolled in School and at Work as Wage and Salary Workers in Survey Week(a)

Hourly rate of pay	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week
Less than $1.00	265	8.5
$1.00-1.24	129	12.7
$1.25-1.49	140	16.5
$1.50-1.99	167	17.1
$2.00 or more	31	(b)
Total or average	767	12.6

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Percentages not shown when based on fewer than 25 sample cases.

Hours of work also show variation by two measures of educational preparation among high school students. That is, girls in vocational and commercial curricula work more hours per week than their counterparts in college preparatory and general curricula; and girls who have completed no clerical courses work fewer hours, on the average, than those who have had at least typing (Table 3A-7). Finally, there is some evidence to indicate that local labor market conditions affect the actual number of hours worked by young female students. Table 3.10 shows a consistently positive relationship, irrespective of age or color, between average hours worked and our measure of the strength of local demand for female labor.[16]

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[15] Data are shown for the only age-color group within which sample sizes in the several wage categories permit comparisons to be made.

V THE INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Correlates of Unemployment

A striking aspect of our study of students is that so few of our economic and demographic measures provide systematic explanations of the differential incidence of unemployment. Clearly, this results in part from the relatively small number of girls in any age-color group who are in the labor force and in part from their substantial homogeneity with regard to types of work performed. For example, among those between 14 and 17 years of age one occupation group--domestic service--contains one-half of the employed girls; no other occupation group contains more than one-sixth of them (Table 3A-9). The situation is similar among those 18 and older for whom clerical jobs account for two-fifths of the employed and no other category contains as many as one-fifth.

However, there are some interesting differences that are apparent. Irrespective of age, occupation, or industry, black female students are considerably more likely than their white counterparts to be unemployed (Tables 3A-1, 3A-8). The intercolor difference is most glaring for 14 and 15 year olds among whom blacks experienced an unemployment rate 11 times as great as that of whites at the time of the survey (Table 3.11). Tabulations not shown here indicate that this intercolor difference is not attributable to differences in family socioeconomic position (as measured by income and/or occupation of head of household). Inasmuch as these girls are relatively homogeneous in other respects, the greater incidence of unemployment among blacks would seem to derive from one or both of the following sources: (1) racial discrimination on the part of employers; (2) a greater inclination among the black than among the white girls to respond that they are seeking work if they are not employed.[17] However, it should be borne in the mind that the power of

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[16] See Glossary, Appendix A, for a definition of the index of demand for female labor.

[17] We are inclined to agree with Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, that quality of schooling differences probably have no effect for this particular age-sex cohort of students (p. 404). An additionally disturbing feature of the data is that 37 percent of the unemployed black girls reported that their current spell of unemployment was of at least five weeks duration, while the corresponding proportion among whites is only 25 percent.

Table 3.10 Mean Hours Worked in Survey Week, by Age, Index of Demand for Female Labor, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age at Work in the Survey Week(a)

Age and index of demand for female labor	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week
14-15	727	8.0	33	9.8
High	381	8.2	15	(b)
Low	346	7.9	18	(b)
16-17	776	12.6	84	12.5
High	411	13.2	49	13.0
Low	365	12.0	34	11.8
18-19	362	16.5	41	14.5
High	203	17.6	20	(b)
Low	159	15.0	21	(b)
20-24	303	22.7	19	(b)
High	179	24.9	11	(b)
Low	125	19.5	8	(b)

(a) Includes only women who are enrolled in school and have no children.
(b) Percentages not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.11 Unemployment Rates, by Age, Number of Weeks Unemployed During 1967, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force in Survey Week(a)

Age and number of weeks unemployed during 1967	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
14-15	795	4.3	67	47.7
None	740	4.7	51	38.7
One or more	54	(b)	15	(b)
16-17	945	13.4	101	15.1
None	811	11.3	79	12.6
One or more	133	24.9	22	(b)
18-19	407	10.0	58	19.3
None	306	7.0	45	8.7
One or more	97	(b)	13	(b)
20-24	352	12.3	24	(b)
None	302	10.0	22	(b)
One or more	50	(b)	2	(b)
14-24	2,497	9.7	249	25.2
None	2,158	8.4	195	19.0
One or more	334	19.4	54	47.8

(a) Includes only women who are enrolled in school and have no children.
(b) Percentages not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

the second explanation is weakened by the observation that white girls of this age exhibit a substantially higher rate of labor force participation than the corresponding group of black girls.

Another important aspect of the incidence of unemployment among female students in the survey week is that it is greater among those who experienced at least one week of unemployment during the calendar year 1967 than among those who did not (Table 3.11). Among whites, those who had experienced one or more weeks of unemployment in 1967 were more than twice as likely as their counterparts who had not been unemployed during that period to be unemployed in the survey week. Assuming that unemployment within this cohort does constitute a social problem, its severity is significantly understated if the examination is limited to unemployment rates at any given point in time.

Job Search by the Unemployed

The methods whereby unemployed female students seek jobs are not substantially different from those used by their male counterparts (Table 3.12).[18] The emphasis is on informal means rather than on formal institutions such as employment agencies. Among blacks and among older girls in general there is less inclination to rely on a single method. However, unemployed young female students, irrespective of color, seem to display a marked lack of realism in their reported job requirements and desires. For example, among 14 to 17 year old blacks about one-sixth of the unemployed were looking for sales work, although none had held sales positions on their last jobs and only 4 percent of their employed counterparts currently hold such positions (Table 3A-9). The major intercolor difference in job requirements is that blacks seem considerably more willing than whites to accept domestic service jobs or "Anything I can get." On the other hand, the similarity between the color groups in wage requirements suggests that black students are less informed than the corresponding group of white with regard to the prevailing relationship between occupation and wage rate.[19] In any event, the data imply a substantial need for improvement in the dissemination of labor market information to female students of all ages and colors.

VI SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

About one-third of the eight million female students 14 to 24 years of age were labor force participants during the survey week in 1968. However, within this age-sex cohort there is considerable variation

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[18] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 77-79.

[19] Furthermore, for both color groups, the wage requirements seem generally overinflated in comparison to their own past experience and the actual wages being paid to their employed counterparts.

Table 3.12 Characteristics of the Unemployed by Age and Color: Unemployed Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	WHITES			BLACKS		
	14-17	18-24	14-24	14-17	18-24	14-24
Total number (thousands)	160	101	262	49	25	74
Occupation sought						
Professional	0	13	6	0	11	4
Clerical	24	51	33	28	47	35
Sales	36	23	31	16	11	14
Blue-collar	0	8	3	0	7	2
Domestic service	9	0	6	32	5	23
Nondomestic service	17	5	13	7	6	7
Anything I can get	13	0	8	16	12	15
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Required wage per hour						
Less than $1.00	15	0	9	20	0	12
$1.00-1.49	55	40	49	46	30	40
$1.50-1.99	26	35	30	25	51	35
$2.00 or more	0	18	7	2	10	5
Don't know	4	7	5	7	9	8
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Median wage required	$1.30	$1.61	$1.38	$1.29	$1.59	$1.42
Hours per week desired						
Less than 15	11	15	13	20	5	14
15-34	89	74	83	77	43	62
35 or more	0	9	4	3	52	24
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Method of looking for work						
School employment service	0	14	6	11	11	11
State employment service	3	8	5	0	12	4
Employers directly	68	24	50	33	29	32
Newspaper ads	0	4	2	5	0	3
Friends or relatives	13	18	15	16	0	11
Other or combination	16	32	22	35	48	39
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100

in labor force participation by age, educational attainment, previous employment experience, color, and family background. Among girls 14 to 17 years old (the high school students by and large) participation rates are positively related to grade in school, socioeconomic status of family, number of weeks worked during 1967, urban background, and age. For girls 16 and 17 years of age completion of some clerical coursework and enrollment in a vocational or commercial curriculum also bear positive associations to labor force participation. In general, black high school girls are less likely than their white counterparts to be in the labor force, although the intercolor difference narrows with age. There is some evidence that this intercolor difference derives in part from discouragement among young blacks, who are faced with considerably higher rates of unemployment.

Among young women of college age (18 to 24) higher participation is found among graduate students, young women whose fathers were in professional occupations, those from big cities, and those who were employed for at least 26 weeks in 1967. Once a young woman enrolls in college there seems to be only a minor effect of age per se on the likelihood of her being in the labor force.

Hours worked during the survey week by girls enrolled in school exhibit positive associations with age, part-time enrollment status, hourly rate of pay, and an index of the strength of local demand for female labor. In addition, examination of the data on hours of work reveals the inadequacy of using only the labor force participation rate to measure labor supplied. For example, among high school girls intercolor supply differences are smaller, and interage differences larger, than would be inferred from comparing participation rates alone.

Although the unemployment rate of young female students is rather high, our current mode of analysis does not permit us to go very far in identifying factors associated with variation in the rate. Along with prior research our data indicate significantly higher unemployment among blacks than whites, irrespective of age. Although unemployment rates vary considerably with age, the relationship is not consistent. In addition, girls who were unemployed during the survey week were much more likely than those who were not to have experienced some unemployment during 1967. Finally, examination of the job requirements of the unemployed in conjunction with their previous work experience and the employment patterns of working students suggest that there is substantial room for improvement in the dissemination of labor market information to young women enrolled in school.

Table 3A-1 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School[(a)]

Age	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Percent ever worked	Total number in labor force survey week (thousands)	Survey week unemployment rate	Total number at work in the survey week (thousands)	Mean hours worked, survey week
	WHITES						
14-15	3,123	25.4	41	794	4.3	727	8.0
16-17	2,642	35.7	57	944	13.4	776	12.6
18-19	1,162	35.0	84	407	10.0	362	16.5
20-21	629	38.4	91	242	11.7	208	22.7
22-24	175	62.8	97	110	13.4	95	
	BLACKS						
14-15	436	15.3	35	67	47.7	33	9.8
16-17	345	29.2	58	101	15.1	84	12.5
18-19	145	39.9	78	58	19.3	41	14.4
20-21	31	54.8	93	17	(b)	13	(b)
22-24	8	(b)	(b)	7	(b)	6	(b)

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Percentages and means not calculated where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3A-2 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Selected Measures of Family Background, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in School(a)

Age and measure of family background	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
Residence at age 14				
14-15	3,123	25.4	436	15.3
Rural(b)	719	18.1	96	15.6
Urban	2,398	27.7	339	14.8
Small city(c)	1,816	29.0	162	11.9
Large city(d)	582	23.7	177	17.5
16-17	2,642	35.7	345	29.2
Rural(b)	593	33.3	93	21.2
Urban	2,040	36.4	253	32.2
Small city(c)	1,504	38.0	132	34.6
Large city(d)	536	31.8	121	29.5
Type of occupation of mother when respondent age 14(e)				
14-15	2,907	25.0	314	14.8
Working	1,402	29.8	162	16.5
White-collar	718	31.3	31	28.0
Blue-collar	406	29.3	22	(f)
Service	259	25.4	97	15.8
Farm	19	(f)	12	(f)
Not working	1,641	21.7	138	13.3
16-17	2,454	36.1	268	28.7
Working	878	39.3	122	29.8
White-collar	511	35.6	22	(f)
Blue-collar	166	34.1	16	(f)
Service	192	53.4	71	20.8
Farm	9	(f)	13	(f)
Not working	1,558	34.6	135	27.6
Exposure to magazines, newspapers, and library books when respondent age 14				
14-15	3,123	25.4	436	15.3
Had all 3	2,092	25.0	104	23.0
Lacked any 1	722	31.5	110	13.9
Lacked 2 or 3	303	14.6	218	11.5
16-17	2,642	35.7	345	29.2
Had all 3	1,737	36.0	100	32.2
Lacked any 1	679	38.8	96	39.1
Lacked 2 or 3	208	26.7	147	21.2

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Includes farm, ranch, and rural nonfarm.
(c) Includes cities and towns of 2,500 to 100,000 population and suburbs of big cities.
(d) Includes cities of 100,000 or more population.
(e) Includes only those living with mother at age 14.
(f) Rates not calculated where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3A-3 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age, Grade Attending, and Color: Nonmarried Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School(a)

Age and grade attending	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Percent ever worked	Unemployment rate, survey week	Mean hours worked, survey week
			WHITES		
18-19	1,162	35.0	84	10.0	16.5
High school	204	36.5	72	(b)	(c)
College	955	34.7	87	12.4	(c)
1 year	606	33.9	90	17.7	(c)
2-4 years	349	36.1	82	3.6	(c)
20-24	805	43.8	92	12.3	22.7
High school	15	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)
College	790	43.4	93	11.4	(c)
1 year	46	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)
2-4 years	651	38.4	92	13.8	(c)
5 years or more	94	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)
18-24	1,967	38.6	87	11.1	19.3
High school	219	38.3	72	(b)	(c)
College	1,745	39.4	90	11.9	(c)
1 year	652	39.2	90	16.6	(c)
2-4 years	1,000	37.6	88	10.4	(c)
5 years or more	94	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)
			BLACKS		
18-19	145	39.9	78	19.3	14.4
High school	78	38.8	65	12.8	(c)
College	67	41.2	93	26.5	(c)
1 year	36	48.9	92	(b)	(c)
2-4 years	31	32.3	94	(b)	(c)
20-24	39	61.3	95	20.1	(b)
High school	3	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)
College	36	66.0	97	19.9	(c)
1 year	11	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)
2-4 years	25	60.7	96	(b)	(c)
5 years or more	0	----	--	----	----
18-24	184	44.4	82	19.5	17.9
High school	81	37.4	65	13.9	(c)
College	103	49.9	94	24.9	(c)
1 year	47	55.6	94	22.1	(c)
2-4 years	56	45.0	95	25.0	(c)
5 years or more	0	----	--	----	----

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Percentages and means not computed where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.
(c) Not available.

Table 3A-4 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Selected Measures of High School Preparation, and Color: Nonmarried Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School[a]

Age and measure of high school preparation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
Curriculum				
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
Vocational or commercial	132	51.5	14	(b)
General	240	37.6	83	37.8
College preparatory	785	31.7	48	46.9
20-24	805	43.8	39	61.3
Vocational or commercial	51	(b)	10	(b)
General	89	(b)	9	(b)
College preparatory	661	42.1	20	54.6
Clerical courses completed in high school				
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
Typing only	684	35.9	59	50.9
Typing and shorthand	242	29.9	33	29.0
Neither	222	40.1	51	35.7
20-24	805	43.8	39	61.3
Typing only	453	39.5	22	(b)
Typing and shorthand	198	51.2	11	(b)
Neither	141	47.4	6	(b)
18-24	1,967	38.6	184	44.4
Typing only	1,137	37.3	81	57.1
Typing and shorthand	440	39.5	44	36.6
Neither	363	42.9	57	33.8

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Percentage not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3A-5 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Selected Measures of Family Background When Respondent Was Age 14, and Color: Nonmarried Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School[a]

Age and measure of family background when respondent age 14	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
Occupation of head of household				
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
White-collar	520	28.7	15	(b)
Professional	164	36.4	5	(b)
Managerial	186	25.8	1	(b)
Clerical/sales	170	24.5	8	(b)
Blue-collar	398	37.2	68	45.3
Service/farm	148	44.4	46	26.1
20-24	805	43.7	39	61.3
White-collar	491	41.9	4	(b)
Professional	175	54.6	1	(b)
Managerial	171	31.5	0	(b)
Clerical/sales	145	38.8	3	(b)
Blue-collar	215	46.7	25	72.5
Service/farm	58	(b)	7	(b)
Whether respondent's mother worked for pay[c]				
18-19	1,068	33.8	121	39.7
Yes	350	38.9	50	51.8
No	709	31.0	67	33.1
20-24	776	44.0	34	59.4
Yes	218	54.9	10	(b)
No	549	39.5	24	(b)
Type of residence				
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
Rural[d]	233	32.9	43	10.8
Urban	923	35.2	101	52.6
Small city[e]	707	31.4	57	63.7
Large city[f]	216	47.6	45	38.8
20-24	805	43.8	39	61.3
Rural[d]	105	48.4	11	(b)
Urban	700	43.0	27	65.0
Small city[e]	507	36.5	9	(b)
Large city[f]	193	57.5	18	(b)
Exposure to reading material, (newspapers, magazines, library card)				
18-19	1,162	35.0	145	39.9
Had all 3	899	35.4	57	45.5
Lacked 1 or more	257	32.4	89	36.3
20-24	805	43.8	39	61.3
Had all 3	708	44.6	27	71.0
Lacked 1 or more	92	(b)	11	(b)

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Rates not calculated where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.
(c) Includes only those who lived with their mothers at age 14.
(d) Includes farm, ranch, and rural nonfarm.
(e) Includes cities and towns of less than 100,000 population and suburbs of large cities.
(f) Includes cities of more than 100,000 population.

Table 3A-6 Mean Hours Worked during Survey Week, by Age, Selected Occupation and Industry Groups, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 19 Years of Age Enrolled in School and at Work in Survey Week[(a)]

Age and selected job characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked
Selected type of occupation				
14-15	727	8.0	33	9.8
Service	599	8.0	23	(b)
16-17	776	12.6	84	12.5
White-collar	320	16.5	46	15.3
Service	425	9.8	32	8.6
18-19	362	16.5	41	14.4
White-collar	241	17.2	19	(b)
Service	103	15.2	20	(b)
Selected major industry group				
14-15	727	8.0	33	9.8
Wholesale and retail trade	93	(b)	0	(b)
Service	606	7.3	27	9.4
16-17	776	12.6	84	12.5
Wholesale and retail trade	273	16.4	15	(b)
Domestic service	275	7.3	20	(b)
Nondomestic service	177	15.0	33	11.0
18-19	362	16.5	41	14.4
Wholesale and retail trade	107	19.2	7	(b)
Service	207	12.8	31	14.0

(a) Includes only women who have no children.

(b) Means not calculated when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3A-7 Mean Hours Worked during Survey Week, by Age, Selected Measures of Educational Preparation, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in School and at Work in Survey Week(a)

Age and measure of educational preparation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked
High school curriculum				
14-15	693	8.0	25	8.7
Vocational, commercial	103	8.5	2	(b)
General	303	7.2	5	(b)
College preparatory	239	7.8	18	(b)
16-17	776	12.6	82	12.3
Vocational, commercial	157	15.4	28	14.0
General	245	13.1	33	11.4
College preparatory	370	11.1	22	(b)
Clerical courses completed				
14-15	693	8.0	25	8.7
None	420	6.6	16	(b)
Typing only	194	9.4	8	(b)
Other	80	(b)	1	(b)
16-17	776	12.6	82	12.3
None	229	10.7	17	(b)
Typing only	327	12.7	54	13.9
Other	216	14.5	12	(b)

(a) Includes only women who have no children.
(b) Means not calculated where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3A-8 Unemployment Rates, by Major Occupation Group, Selected Major Industry Division, and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School and in the Labor Force(a)

Major occupation group and major industry division	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Occupation				
Professional, managerial	151	0.0	6	(b)
Clerical	588	6.9	99	17.1
Sales	275	15.0	9	(b)
Blue-collar	90	(b)	10	(b)
Domestic service	905	5.4	75	26.4
Nondomestic service	434	16.8	41	38.7
Farm	39	(b)	4	(b)
Total or average	2,497	9.9	249	25.2
Industry				
Wholesale and retail trade	677	17.4	38	21.5
Domestic service	929	5.2	75	26.4
Nondomestic service	658	4.1	96	24.4
Other	233	17.1	40	37.9
Total or average	2,497	9.9	249	25.2

(a) Includes only women who have no children

(b) Rates not calculated where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3A-9 Occupational Distributions, by Age and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Age and occupation	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Employed(a) (current job)	Unemployed(a) (last job)	Unemployed (job sought)	Employed(a) (current job)	Unemployed(a) (last job)	Unemployed (job sought)
14-17						
Professional, managerial	2	0	0	2	0	0
Clerical	16	9	24	40	24	28
Sales	9	14	36	4	0	16
Blue-collar	3	3	0	3	7	0
Domestic service	52	30	9	37	40	32
Nondomestic service	16	34	17	11	26	7
Farm	1	9	0	4	4	0
Anything I can get	0	0	13	0	0	16
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,578	160	160	121	47	49
18-24						
Professional, managerial	17	(b)	13	2	(b)	11
Clerical	43		51	55		47
Sales	13		23	6		11
Blue-collar	3		8	3		7
Domestic service	7		0	17		5
Nondomestic service	16		5	18		6
Farm	1		0	0		0
Anything I can get	0		0	0		12
Total percent	100		100	100		100
Total number (thousands)	675	84	101	66	16	25

(a) Includes only those who are nonmarried, without children.
(b) Percentage distribution not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

CHAPTER FOUR

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF NONSTUDENTS

I INTRODUCTION

Young women 18 to 24 years of age who are no longer enrolled in school represent an increasingly important source of labor services. In October 1967 there were about 8.5 million such women in the population, 16 percent more than there had been five years earlier. Over the same time period, the proportion of these women who were in the labor force rose from 52.8 percent to 57.4 percent, an increase of almost 9 percent.[1] This chapter quantifies several dimensions of the labor market participation of the group[2] and seeks to uncover the characteristics that are associated with the extent of a young woman's participation.

The age span under consideration is one in which substantial change frequently takes place in the life of a young woman. She may leave her parental family and live on her own; she may marry and establish a new household with her husband; she may bear children. Each of these changes in marital and family status is likely to have an important influence on labor market behavior.

For this reason, we begin the analysis in the next section with an examination of the way in which marital and family status interacts with color and age in their relationship to the extent of labor market activity. In Section III, with the aforementioned characteristics used as controls, the association between a series of other variables and labor force participation is examined, with particular attention being given to the influence of education and training, wages, health, attitudes, and local labor market conditions. Section IV examines the correlates of labor force participation from a somewhat different perspective. Focusing on those women who were not in the labor force at the time of the survey, it analyzes differences in their prospective labor market entry based on responses to questions concerning future plans. The final section summarizes the findings and offers some conclusions.

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[1] Computed from data in U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President, 1970 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), Table B-6, pp. 249-50.

[2] All of the analysis in this chapter is confined to young women who were not enrolled in school at the time they were interviewed early in 1968. Because of the small number of sample cases of out-of-school youth within younger age groups, the data are further restricted in most cases to those between the ages of 18 and 24.

In the text and tables, chief emphasis is placed on the survey week labor force participation rate, although Table 4.1 presents several other summary measures: the proportion of respondents who have ever worked[3]; the proportion who were in the labor force at some time during 1967; mean weeks of participation in the same year; and, mean hours worked during the survey week.[4] In subsequent tables, the hours measured is generally shown in addition to the survey week labor force participation rate.

II MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS, COLOR, AND AGE

Age

Teenage girls who are not enrolled in school are more likely than those in their early twenties to be in the labor force, but this is exclusively the result of the fact that the younger group is much less likely to be married (Table 4.1). Actually, when marital and family status is controlled, activity rates increase with increasing age. No matter which measure of labor market activity is used, it is true almost without exception that within each marital and family status category the women in their early twenties have higher degrees of participation than those in their teens, although the differences are less pronounced among married[5] women with children than among those without children.[6]

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[3] This, of course, excludes individuals who may have unsuccessfully sought work, and is therefore not a conceptually pure measure of labor supply. Also, it should be noted that the individual had to have worked at a job for at least two consecutive weeks to be included.

[4] The measures of activity based upon the preceding year are of limited utility because the group of respondents under consideration includes many who were in school in 1967 and because the probability of a respondent's having been in school in the year prior to the survey is correlated with some of the variables whose influence is being examined here.

[5] For definition of marital status categories, see Glossary, Appendix A.

[6] Indeed, in the case of married white women with children, two of the measures (survey week labor force participation rate and percent in labor force at least one week in 1967) are higher for the younger than the older age group.

Comparisons can be made most confidently for nonmarried women without children, since there are sufficient numbers of them in both age categories to allow estimates that are not likely to be substantially affected by sampling error. Among white women in this group, the current labor force participation rate is about 14 percentage points higher for those in their twenties than for those in their late teens (89.7 versus 76.0 percent). The proportion with work experience is 4 percentage points higher (97.5 versus 93.5 percent) and the proportion who were in the labor force at least one week in 1967 is 6 percentage points higher. Finally, the older group were in the labor force a larger average number of weeks in 1967 (40.8 versus 30.9) and are more likely currently to be full-time workers (87 versus 79 percent).

Whether these age differences in labor force participation are "real" or whether they reflect the influence of other factors (e.g., education) that are correlated with age cannot be said until these other factors are examined in the next section. To anticipate, however, it might be mentioned here that the evidence does seem to support the hypothesis that age exercises an independent effect on the participation of the group under consideration. Whether this is because the "productivity" in the home relative to that in the labor market is greater for women in their late teens than in their early twenties, or whether it reflects the effect of maturation on the desire to work outside the home cannot be said.

Color

Overall, measures of labor force participation in the survey week and in the recent past are higher for black women than for white women, although weekly hours of those who are employed are higher for the whites. The relationship of virtually all these measures to color, however, varies considerably among the several marital and family status categories. Among nonmarried young women, the extent of labor market participation is higher for whites than for blacks; among married women with children, however, the relationship is reversed. For the nonmarried group with no children--both those in their late teens and those in their early twenties--every measure of activity is higher for whites than for blacks (Table 4.1). For married women with children, every measure of current activity or of activity in the past year shows greater participation by the blacks than the whites--including, it should be noted, average weekly hours of those who are employed. In the case of married women without children, current labor force participation is higher for whites than blacks, but measures based on activity in 1967 show the opposite relationship. It is probable that the latter effect is produced by the fact that larger proportions of white than of black women in their early twenties were enrolled in school in 1967.

Table 4.1 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age, Marital and Family Status, and Color Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Age and marital and family status	WHITES								BLACKS							
	Population					At work in survey week			Population					At work in survey week		
	Total number (thousands)	Survey week labor force participation rate	Percent ever worked	Percent in labor force at least one week in 1967	Mean number of weeks in labor force in 1967	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week(a)	Total number (thousands)	Survey week labor force participation rate	Percent ever worked	Percent in labor force at least one week in 1967	Mean number of weeks in labor force in 1967	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week(a)
18-19 years																
Married, no children	337	64.5	92.9	85.6	29.3	157	38	76	16	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	2	(b)	(b)
Married, with children	263	39.5	84.0	69.3	12.4	60	(b)	(b)	59	56.1	78.0	70.0	17.6	24	(b)	(b)
Nonmarried, no children	1,101	76.0	93.5	89.2	30.9	753	37	79	133	71.9	88.0	85.1	28.4	77	36	73
Nonmarried, with children	78	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	22	(b)	(b)	40	47.8	82.5	57.8	17.9	11	(b)	(b)
Total or average	1,792	66.3	91.6	84.4	27.1	996	36	76	256	64.2	85.9	78.2	24.2	123	34	69
20-24 years																
Married, no children	1,157	78.0	96.8	92.7	39.5	807	38	83	76	70.1	100.0	94.0	33.7	37	32	60
Married, with children	2,393	31.8	89.5	52.9	14.7	619	32	57	288	57.5	91.3	76.7	21.4	126	35	59
Nonmarried, no children	1,696	89.7	97.5	95.0	40.8	1,331	40	87	255	77.7	91.4	89.3	37.5	166	37	78
Nonmarried, with children	333	54.3	94.6	73.2	26.1	156	37	70	176	50.4	88.1	84.0	30.8	70	36	63
Total or average	5,602	60.4	93.7	75.3	28.6	2,930	38	79	802	63.5	91.5	84.1	29.8	403	36	68
18-24 years																
Married	4,150	47.8	91.5	67.7	22.6	1,642	36	71	439	59.3	91.1	79.2	23.0	189	33	57
No children	1,494	74.9	95.9	91.1	37.2	963	38	82	92	67.4	98.9	92.9	31.5	39	31	60
With children	2,656	32.5	89.0	54.5	14.4	679	32	56	347	57.2	89.0	76.6	20.7	150	33	57
Nonmarried	3,208	79.9	95.4	89.9	35.2	2,261	39	83	604	66.5	89.1	84.8	32.2	324	37	74
No children	2,797	84.3	95.9	92.7	36.9	2,083	39	84	388	75.7	90.2	87.9	34.4	243	37	77
With children	411	50.3	92.2	71.3	23.5	178	37	70	216	49.9	87.1	79.1	28.4	81	36	64
Total, no children	4,291	81.0	95.9	92.1	37.0	3,046	39	83	480	74.1	91.9	88.8	33.8	282	36	74
Total, with children	3,067	34.9	89.4	56.8	15.7	857	33	59	563	54.4	88.3	76.9	23.7	231	34	59
Total or average	7,394	61.8	93.2	77.5	28.2	3,926	37	78	1,060	63.7	90.1	82.7	28.4	525	35	68

(a) Defined as those who worked 35 hours or more during survey week.
(b) Not computed when base is fewer than 25 sample cases.

Thus, it appears that for this age group of women--unlike those in their thirties and early forties[7]--the extent of labor market activity by married black women is greater than that of white only in the case of those with children. It is also true that a smaller proportion of the total age group of blacks than of whites are married women with children. On the other hand, a larger percentage of blacks than of whites are nonmarried with children. Thus, the overall difference in labor force participation between the two color groups is affected by differences in their composition of marital and family status. If the blacks were distributed among the four marital and family status categories in the same proportions as whites, the difference in the overall labor force participation rate for the total age group would be about 4 percentage points in favor of the blacks, rather than the 2 point difference which actually prevails.

Marital and Family Status

Among whites, there is an impressive regularity in the relationship between marital and family status on the one hand and the extent of labor market activity on the other. Virtually irrespective of the measure used, the highest rate of labor market activity is evidenced by nonmarried women without children, the next highest by married women without children, next by nonmarried women with children, and the lowest rate by married women with children. Among blacks the relationship is somewhat more erratic, depending on the particular measure used.

Yet, while marital status and the presence of children exercise independent effects on participation, the latter has a much stronger influence than the former. The current labor force participation rates of white women illustrate the point. Among those with no children, the married women have rates only 9 percentage points lower than the nonmarried. However, within the married category those with children have rates 42 percentage points lower than those without children, and among the nonmarried the corresponding difference is 34 percentage points. The same generalization can be made for the black women, although in their case the presence of children makes less difference in labor force participation than in the case of the white.

Although hours worked per week tend to vary among the several marital and family status categories in the same direction as the other measures, they vary substantially less than participation rates. Marital and family status appears to be more important in affecting the decision to take work at all than in affecting weekly hours once the decision to take a job has been made. While entrance to and exit from the labor force are relatively easy for young women, the ability to adjust weekly hours of work to one's specific needs is somewhat more limited. Thus, adjustments in quantity of labor supplied during the course of, say, a year are more likely to come via changes in number of weeks worked than by changes in the number of hours worked per week.

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[7] For that group of married women, participation rates are higher for blacks than for whites irrespective of the presence of children. See Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 55.

III OTHER CORRELATES OF LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

We turn now to examine a number of other factors which theoretically may be expected to be related to a young woman's labor force status. In addition to identifying further sources of variation in the extent of labor market activity, such an analysis should be helpful in understanding the intercolor differences that have been found, since skin color is clearly not *per se* an "explanation" for differences in labor market behavior except to the extent that it either reflects discrimination or is associated with characteristics (e.g., education, family income, and attitudes) that are plausibly related to such behavior.

Education and Training

Years of schooling Other things being equal, education is expected to be positively related to labor force participation for several reasons. For one, the higher the level of educational attainment of a woman, the higher her potential earnings, and also the greater the non-pecuniary attractiveness of the jobs that are likely to be available to her. Moreover, the achievement of a high level of education by a woman may have occurred precisely because she has wanted to prepare herself for work. To the extent that this is the case, level of education is really serving as a proxy for a favorable attitude toward labor market activity.

There is, indeed, a very pronounced association between level of educational attainment and the extent of labor force participation. For the total group of whites 18 to 24 years of age, the participation rate rises monotonically from 31.8 percent among those with eight or less years of schooling to 90.0 percent among those with 16 or more years (Table 4.2). For the blacks the corresponding percentages are 37.1 and 100. Among those at work, weekly hours also rise fairly regularly as educational attainment increases--more dramatically for the blacks than for the whites. A substantial portion of this simple relationship between education and labor force status is attributable to the intercorrelations between education on the one hand and marital status and age on the other. Nevertheless, when marital and family status is controlled for the 20 to 24 year age group, the relationship between education and labor force participation persists.

Table 4.2 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age, Marital and Family Status, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Age, marital and family status, and highest year of school completed	WHITES					BLACKS				
	Population		At work in survey week			Population		At work in survey week		
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week	Percent full-time workers in survey week	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week	Percent full-time workers in survey week
18-24 years										
8 or less	405	31.8	88	(b)	(b)	140	37.1	40	22.8	31.4
9-11	1,221	39.9	367	35.1	67.1	283	56.2	107	32.2	57.3
12	4,303	66.0	2,475	37.1	78.8	494	69.6	283	37.1	74.5
13-15	930	69.0	568	38.2	81.8	107	81.7	76	39.1	78.4
16 or more	524	90.0	428	40.1	82.3	26	100.0	19	(b)	(b)
Total or average	7,394	61.8	3,926	37.4	78.0	1,060	63.7	525	35.4	68.3
20-24 years										
Nonmarried, no children	1,696	89.7	1,331	39.9	86.6	255	77.7	166	37.1	78.5
Less than 12	157	54.8	45	(b)	(b)	63	57.1	29	27.1	48.3
12	925	93.0	752	39.0	85.3	121	79.2	76	37.6	82.1
13-15	331	92.4	273	40.1	84.9	64	91.6	53	41.5	88.6
16 or more	284	95.3	260	42.8	95.6	6	(b)	6	(b)	(b)
Married, no children	1,157	78.0	807	38.4	82.9	76	70.1	37	31.7	60.2
Less than 12	106	47.2	36	(b)	(b)	20	(b)	11	(b)	(b)
12	642	79.6	474	37.7	84.4	41	75.3	20	(b)	(b)
13-15	216	77.8	153	40.0	93.6	3	(b)	0	(b)	(b)
16 or more	192	89.8	144	38.5	69.3	12	(b)	7	(b)	(b)
Married, with children	2,393	31.8	619	32.3	57.3	288	57.5	126	35.0	59.0
Less than 12	787	27.4	164	34.1	60.4	149	49.7	48	32.5	60.4
12	1,343	32.8	373	32.6	59.5	102	61.5	54	37.5	57.9
13-15	215	34.7	57	(b)	(b)	31	77.1	19	(b)	(b)
16 or more	48	(b)	25	(b)	(b)	6	(b)	5	(b)	(b)
Total or average[a]	5,602	60.4	2,930	37.7	78.6	802	63.5	403	35.8	68.2

(a) Total includes those respondents who are nonmarried with children.
(b) Not computed when base is less than 2^5 sample cases.

Although not shown in the table, it is also true that when educational attainment and marital status are controlled, the effect of age on labor force participation continues to be visible, at least among whites. For instance, among nonmarried white women who have no children and who have completed 12 years of schooling, the participation rate is 80.4 percent for those 18 to 19 years old and 93.0 percent for those 20 to 24. Among blacks, the difference is only 2 percentage points, but in the opposite direction.

The data in Table 4.2 also contain an important implication for the overall intercolor difference in rates of labor market activity. Since education is positively related to participation, and since the average white woman has more education than the average black woman, it follows that the slight (2 percentage point) differential in the overall labor force participation rate in favor of the young black women would be even higher if the blacks and whites had equal educational attainments.

Typing and shorthand skills   A young woman who acquired typing or stenographic skills in high school is presumably better qualified than one who did not for a substantial portion of jobs that women traditionally fill, and this may be expected to increase the probability of her labor force participation, other things being equal. The expectation is confirmed by the data in Table 4.3. Considering the entire age group of whites, the participation rate is 9 percentage points higher among those who had both typing and shorthand than among those who had neither. Among the blacks, the difference is even larger--15 percentage points. In each case, those who had only typing are between those with stenographic skills and those with no such skills.[8] Among those employed, hours worked during the survey week display the same positive association with the possession of clerical skills, probably because part-time employment is less common in clerical work than in many other types of jobs in which women serve.[9] The relation between the possession of these skills and labor force participation appears to be considerably stronger in the case of blacks than of whites, which has also been found to be true among women in their thirties and early forties.[10]

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[8] Other occupational training received outside of regular school shows no such relationship with current labor force participation rates, but a slight association with mean number of weeks in the labor force in 1967.

[9] See Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 128.

[10] Ibid., p. 65.

Table 4.3 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age, Marital and Family Status, Whether Took Typing and Shorthand in High School and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School[a]

Age, marital and family status, and whether took typing or shorthand in high school	WHITES					BLACKS				
	Population		At work in survey week			Population		At work in survey week		
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked, survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week
18-24 years										
Neither typing nor shorthand	1,050	57.2	503	34.3	69.9	313	60.8	135	32.0	60.0
Typing only	3,120	63.3	1,667	36.9	76.0	371	68.8	200	38.0	75.5
Typing and shorthand[b]	2,794	66.2	1,653	38.9	83.7	223	75.8	141	38.2	75.2
Total or average	6,979	63.6	3,838	37.4	78.5	910	67.7	479	36.3	71.0
20-24 years										
Nonmarried, no children	1,632	92.3	1,325	40.0	86.9	223	81.4	156	37.9	80.7
Neither typing nor shorthand	220	89.8	161	38.5	85.3	69	68.6	37	29.8	60.5
Typing only	748	90.4	592	39.9	87.3	98	82.9	74	42.0	88.2
Typing and shorthand[b]	659	95.3	567	40.5	86.8	54	94.7	44	38.1	84.8
Married, no children	1,127	77.1	800	38.2	82.9	79	69.7	30	36.2	73.3
Neither typing nor shorthand	151	73.5	96	(d)	(d)	28	68.4	9	(d)	(d)
Typing only	477	80.9	334	38.8	84.3	30	83.8	13	(d)	(d)
Typing and shorthand[b]	499	78.0	370	38.4	84.8	21	(d)	8	(d)	(d)
Married, with children	2,242	32.2	591	32.4	59.0	252	59.8	115	36.1	61.2
Neither typing nor shorthand	382	33.2	98	(d)	(d)	99	52.8	36	34.8	63.3
Typing only	971	32.1	255	31.1	51.7	102	60.8	46	37.6	76.6
Typing and shorthand[b]	881	31.3	229	35.3	70.3	49	71.4	33	35.6	39.7
Total or average[c]	5,602	60.4	2,885	37.8	79.2	687	66.5	479	36.3	71.0

(a) Excludes all respondents who never attended high school.

(b) Includes a few respondents with shorthand and no typing.

(c) Includes nonmarried respondents with children.

(d) Not calculated where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Hourly Rate of Pay

It was suggested above that educational attainment serves as a proxy for potential earnings, and that this helps to explain the positive relationship between years of schooling and labor force participation. Unlike most previous studies of labor force participation, we have information on rates of pay of women who were employed as wage and salary workers at the time of the survey or in the recent past, viz., since January 1, 1967 (Table 4.4). This permits a direct test of the hypothesis, albeit only for those with recent work experience, that the probability of a woman's being in the labor force is positively related to what she can earn. For the total age group of young women under consideration, the positive association between rate of pay and labor force participation is pronounced, ranging in the case of the whites from about 60 percent to those with average hourly earnings under $1.50 to about 95 percent for those earning $3.00 or more per hour. The relationship persists for both color groups 20 to 24 years of age when marital and family status is controlled. Among those working in the survey week, weekly hours rise with increases in rate of pay up to about $2.50 per hour, beyond which they appear to decline.

Health

Compared to women in their thirties and early forties, very few of the young women under consideration here report a health problem that either limits the amount or kind of work they can do or prevents them entirely from working. The proportion of the older group with such problems was almost a fifth,[11] in contrast with only 8 percent of the out-of-school young women 18 to 24. Of the black young women with health problems, current participation rates are 36 percentage points lower than those of their healthy counterparts, while among whites the difference is only 18 percentage points (Table 4.5).[12] Among the white women at work in the survey week, those who reported health problems worked 1.7 hours less, on average, than those who were free of such problems. Among blacks, on the other hand, those with health limitations worked 5.3 hours longer than their healthy counterparts. If this difference is real rather than reflecting sampling error (the number of sample cases of blacks with health problems is small) it may very well reflect the fact that black women whose health limits their working activity are unlikely to be domestic servants, among whom average number hours worked per week is low.

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[11] Ibid., p. 31.

[12] The differences in participation rates among healthy and unhealthy women 30 to 44 years of age are larger for blacks than whites, too. Ibid., p. 60.

Table 4.4 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age, Marital and Family Status, Rate of Pay on Current or Last Job, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School Employed as Wage and Salary Workers at Some Time since January 1, 1967

Age, marital and family status, and rate of pay	WHITES					BLACKS				
	Population		At work in survey week			Population		At work in survey week		
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked, survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked, survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week
18-24										
Less than $1.00	291	59.6	154	28.6	43.1	61	83.3	45	34.3	67.0
$1.00-1.49	968	61.7	413	36.4	69.2	195	66.2	87	37.5	69.0
$1.50-1.99	1,818	83.6	1,368	38.3	83.7	262	86.3	191	37.6	79.9
$2.00-2.49	1,153	87.9	920	38.6	84.0	121	89.4	92	38.3	77.7
$2.50-2.99	534	90.9	467	38.6	85.5	38	93.4	35	36.1	67.2
$3.00-3.49	202	95.4	178	36.3	78.4	9	(a)	7	(a)	(a)
$3.50 or more	111	94.6	86	(a)	(a)	18	(a)	9	(a)	(a)
Total or average	5,646	77.7	3,833	37.4	78.4	833	77.3	523	35.4	68.4
20-24										
Nonmarried, no children	1,609	93.7	1,322	39.8	86.5	218	88.8	166	37.1	78.5
Less than $1.00	46	(a)	33	(a)	(a)	19	(a)	19	(a)	(a)
$1.00-1.49	212	80.7	104	41.1	81.7	35	71.4	20	(a)	(a)
$1.50-1.99	470	94.3	397	39.4	83.4	74	87.3	50	38.2	83.8
$2.00-2.99	662	95.8	594	39.8	91.6	57	98.2	54	41.7	90.7
$3.00 or more	129	100.0	124	36.3	78.2	10	(a)	7	(a)	(a)
Married, no children	1,043	83.6	787	38.5	83.1	65	71.5	37	31.7	60.2
Less than $1.00	27	(a)	10	(a)	(a)	2	(a)	2	(a)	(a)
$1.00-1.49	117	53.0	46	(a)	(a)	15	(a)	4	(a)	(a)
$1.50-1.99	292	91.8	250	38.8	87.1	11	(a)	7	(a)	(a)
$2.00-2.49	261	84.3	202	39.9	89.1	14	(a)	8	(a)	(a)
$2.50-2.99	196	92.8	173	37.5	81.3	2	(a)	2	(a)	(a)
$3.00 or more	105	85.7	76	(a)	(a)	7	(a)	7	(a)	(a)
Married, with children	1,239	52.2	558	32.4	58.6	196	78.4	125	34.7	58.6
Less than $1.00	67	(a)	31	(a)	(a)	11	(a)	5	(a)	(a)
$1.00-1.49	244	41.4	85	(a)	(a)	52	82.7	29	35.6	69.0
$1.50-1.99	328	50.2	155	37.6	75.3	70	91.4	55	36.4	73.1
$2.00-2.99	247	68.4	155	34.0	64.5	28	85.7	21	(a)	(a)
$3.00 or more	52	(a)	50	(a)	(a)	5	(a)	1	(a)	(a)
Total or average (b)	4,151	77.7	2,841	37.8	79.3	630	76.8	402	35.7	68.1

(a) Percentage not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

(b) Includes nonmarried women with children.

Table 4.5 Selected Measures of Labor Market Activity, by Health Limitations and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Health limitations	Population		At work in survey week		
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean number of hours worked, survey week	Percent full-time workers, survey week
			WHITES		
No limitations	6,796	63.2	3,715	37.4	77.9
Limitations	568	44.9	193	35.7	77.4
Total or average	7,394	61.8	3,926	37.4	78.0
			BLACKS		
No limitations	944	67.6	494	35.0	68.5
Limitations	113	31.4	30	40.3	64.1
Total or average	1,060	63.7	525	35.4	68.3

We can only speculate about the reasons for the intercolor difference in the relation between the health variable and the labor force participation rate; from the experience to date with the other age-sex cohorts we suspect that health limitations reported by blacks tend to be more severe than those reported by whites. It is also possible that both actual and perceived job opportunities and working conditions might be more promising for an unhealthy white than for her black counterpart.

Attitude toward Employment of Mothers

In view of the substantial discretionary element in the labor market activity of married women, it seems reasonable to suppose that their views on the propriety of their seeking employment outside the home will influence their work decisions. A strong belief that a mother's obligation is to be at home with her children, for example, may be expected to restrict labor market activity. In our comparable study of women between 30 and 44 years of age, a pronounced relationship was found between the attitude of married women on this question and the likelihood of their being in the labor force.[13] Those with "permissive" attitudes toward the employment of mothers had labor force participation rates that were higher than those of women who were opposed by 25 percentage points in the case of whites and 12 percentage points in the case of blacks.[14]

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[13] The results of the two studies are not strictly comparable, since there were differences in the wording of the question (see footnote 14). Nevertheless, this would not seem to account for the interaction between age and color that is described in the text.

[14] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 68. In that study, the attitudinal measure was based on responses to a series of three questions postulating the employment under various specified conditions of a married woman with school-age children. After an initial statement by the interviewer that "people have different ideas about whether married women should work," respondents were asked how they felt about a married woman with children between 6 and 12 years of age taking a full-time job outside the home "if it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet." A response was chosen from a card containing the alternatives "definitely all right," "probably all right," "probably not all right," and "definitely not all right." They were then asked how they felt about such a woman working under each of the following circumstances: "if she wants to work and her husband agrees" and "if she wants to work even if her husband does not particularly like the idea." In each instance the women were requested to choose one of the four responses listed on the card. Responses were scored as follows: for each question "definitely all right" was weighted 5 points; "probably all right," 4 points; no opinion or undecided, 3 points; "probably not all right," 2 points; and "definitely not all right," 1 point. The composite score for each respondent thus had a possible range of 3 to 15. Scores of 3 to 9 were designated "opposed," 10 and 11, "ambivalent"; and 12-15, "permissive."

In the present study the same format was used, except that the introductory statement used by the interviewer differed most notably by referring to preschool-age children rather than children between 6 and 12 years of age. See item 76 in interview schedule, Appendix F.

There are two aspects of the data in Table 4.6 that are worthy of mention. One of these is implicit in what has already been reported in Chapter 2--namely, that the black women are, on the average, more favorably disposed toward labor market activity by mothers than are their white counterparts. Not only is the proportion of blacks holding permissive views larger than that of the whites (28 versus 19 percent), but the proportion who manifest opposition is much smaller---about 14 percent versus 27 percent. Second, opposition to the idea of labor market activity by mothers appears to be more likely among young women who do not themselves have children than among those who do. This may mean that financial or psychological pressures associated with having children cause women to have second thoughts about whether working outside the home for pay is really inappropriate. It may also mean that some women postpone marriage and childbearing because they feel that mothers of young children should not work.

The attitude under consideration is strongly and consistently related to measures of labor force participation only in the case of the married white women with children (Table 4.7). Within this group, those with permissive attitudes have a labor force participation rate 15 percentage points higher than those who oppose the idea of working mothers. Further, the permissive group works, on the average, almost 11 more hours per week than those with unfavorable attitudes. Among the married white women with no children, those with permissive attitudes also have the highest labor force participation rates (11 percentage points higher than those who have unfavorable attitudes) but there is almost no difference between the latter and the "ambivalent" group. Moreover, there are no perceptible differences among the three attitude groups in the proportions of full-time workers or in the mean number of hours worked in the survey week. It is not particularly surprising that the attitude under consideration is not related to the labor market activity of the nonmarried in the same way that it is for the married women, since even those who believe strongly that "a woman's place is in the home" are not likely these days to apply such a dictum to girls without husbands.

The fact that there is the expected relation among married women (and particularly those of them who have children) between the extent and intensity (i.e., hours) of labor force participation on the one hand and attitude toward the employment of mothers on the other does not in itself, of course, establish the direction of causation. We cannot be certain whether the association reflects the effect that the attitude has on labor force activity or whether the attitude is itself a reflection of the woman's status or experience. However, we have measured this attitude for all members of the sample, including those who were still in school at the time of the first survey. Thus, as the study progresses, we should be able to shed some light on this question by observing the relationship between the attitude measure and activity as various kinds of change in status occur, e.g., leaving school and getting married and having children.

Table 4.6 Attitude Toward the Employment of Mothers, by Age, Marital and Family Status, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Attitude[(a)]	18 to 19 years old		20 to 24 years old				18-24 years old
	Nonmarried, no children	Total or average	Nonmarried, no children	Married, no children	Married, with children	Total or average	
	WHITES						
Opposed	26	27	35	31	20	27	27
Ambivalent	55	56	47	52	59	54	54
Permissive	18	17	18	17	20	19	19
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,101	1,792	1,696	1,157	2,393	5,602	7,394
	BLACKS						
Opposed	14	12	23	8	10	15	14
Ambivalent	59	56	54	66	62	58	57
Permissive	27	33	22	26	28	27	28
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	133	258	255	76	288	802	1,060

(a) For definition and method of measurement, see text footnote 14.

Table 4.7 Selected Measures of Extent of Labor Market Activity, by Age, Marital and Family Status, Attitude toward Employment of Mothers and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Age, marital and family status, and attitude toward employment of mothers	WHITES					BLACKS				
	Population		At work in survey week			Population		At work in survey week		
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week	Percent full-time workers in survey week	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate, survey week	Total number (thousands)	Mean hours worked in survey week	Percent full-time workers in survey week
18-24 years										
Opposed	1,979	65.2	1,127	38.2	79.6	151	61.0	77	40.6	80.6
Ambivalent	3,959	59.8	2,013	37.2	78.6	597	64.5	298	33.9	63.3
Permissive	1,366	64.9	767	36.6	73.9	292	67.6	151	35.5	71.9
Total or average	7,394	61.8	3,926	37.4	78.0	1,060	63.7	525	35.4	68.3
20-24 years										
Nonmarried, no children	1,696	89.6	1,331	39.9	86.6	255	77.7	166	37.1	78.5
Opposed	576	93.9	472	41.0	88.2	56	72.8	33	45.0	94.0
Ambivalent	771	87.7	596	40.5	90.2	131	79.7	89	35.4	76.2
Permissive	304	95.3	253	36.9	76.8	55	95.6	44	34.6	71.4
Married, no children	1,157	78.0	807	38.4	82.9	76	70.2	37	31.7	60.2
Opposed	353	76.7	232	39.1	83.7	6	(b)	4	(b)	(b)
Ambivalent	601	75.2	408	38.0	82.6	50	70.2	20	(b)	(b)
Permissive	199	88.2	162	38.1	82.0	20	(b)	13	(b)	(b)
Married, with children	2,393	31.7	619	32.3	57.3	288	57.5	126	35.0	59.0
Opposed	485	23.9	91	(b)	(b)	28	50.1	10	(b)	(b)
Ambivalent	1,407	32.3	366	32.7	57.6	179	60.3	79	35.2	57.8
Permissive	487	38.8	162	35.6	66.1	80	54.6	36	33.8	56.7
Total or average[a]	5,602	60.4	2,930	37.7	78.6	802	63.5	403	35.8	68.2

(a) Total includes respondents who are nonmarried with children.

(b) Percentage not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Labor Market Conditions

Other things being equal, one would expect the degree of labor market activity of women to be related to the availability of jobs for them in the local labor market area. One variable that measures this is our "index of demand for female labor," which is simply an indicator of the extent to which the industrial structure of a community is such as to provide a large proportion of jobs that are normally held by women.[15] For all categories of young women in which there are sufficient sample cases for reliable estimates, labor force participation rates are perceptibly higher in areas of "high demand" than in areas of "low demand" (Table 4.8). For the entire age group, the difference is about 9 percentage points for whites and 10 percentage points for blacks. Among those 20 to 24 years of age, the difference is most pronounced among the nonmarried black girls with no children (20 percentage points) but it is also high for the married women with children of both color groups--11 percentage points for the whites and 12 percentage points for the blacks.

Another variable relating to the condition of the labor market is the overall unemployment rate. On a priori grounds one might expect either a positive or a negative relationship between this variable and the labor force participation of young women. On the one hand, high unemployment on the part of primary breadwinners might be expected to induce their wives and adult daughters to enter the labor force in an attempt to make up the lost family earnings--the so-called "additional worker" hypothesis. On the other hand, high unemployment in an area might be expected to impress on many wives and teenagers the limited prospects of finding work and thus to discourage their entrance into the labor market--the so-called "discouraged worker" hypothesis.

Most recent research has shown that of these two effects, the latter tends to predominate, producing an inverse relation between area unemployment rates and labor force participation, particularly of "secondary" workers.[16] The data in Table 4.9 are, by and large,

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[15] Our measure is based on the procedure used by Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, pp. 773-76. For each PSU we multiplied the number employed (in 1960) in each industry by the national fraction of that industry's employment represented by women. The sum of these products for each PSU was divided by the total civilian employment in the PSU (omitting the "industry not reported" group). The result was the "index of demand." The PSU's were then divided into two nearly equal groups of "high demand" (index of 32 or over) and "low demand" (index under 32).

[16] See Jacob Mincer, "Labor Force Participation and Unemployment: A Review of Recent Evidence" in Robert A. Gordon and Margaret S. Gordon, Prosperity and Unemployment (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966), pp. 85, 91-100.

Table 4.8 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age, Marital and Family Status, Index of Demand for Female Labor(a) and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Age, marital and family status, and index of demand for female labor	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
18-24 years				
High demand	3,894	66.2	587	68.0
Low demand	3,500	56.9	473	58.3
Total or average	7,394	61.8	1,060	63.7
18-19 years				
Nonmarried, no children	1,101	76.0	133	71.9
High demand	558	77.6	75	71.6
Low demand	543	74.3	58	72.2
Married, no children	337	64.4	16	(b)
High demand	172	73.0	7	(b)
Low demand	165	55.7	9	(b)
Total or average(c)	1,792	66.3	258	64.2
20-24 years				
Nonmarried, no children	1,696	89.6	255	77.7
High demand	954	91.7	140	86.7
Low demand	743	87.0	115	66.7
Married, no children	1,157	78.0	76	70.2
High demand	639	80.5	46	68.5
Low demand	518	74.8	30	72.7
Married, with children	2,393	31.7	288	57.5
High demand	1,188	37.4	145	63.3
Low demand	1,204	26.2	143	51.5
Total or average(d)	5,602	60.4	802	54.5

(a) For definition and method of measurement, see text footnote 15.
(b) Percentage not computed when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.
(c) Includes respondents who are married with children and nonmarried with children.
(d) Includes nonmarried respondents with children.

consistent with this conclusion although the relationship is by no means perfect. Among the young white women, the labor force participation rate is about 3 percentage points lower in areas of high unemployment (5.1 percent or more) than in areas of low unemployment (under 3.1 percent). In the case of the blacks the corresponding difference is about 4 percentage points. However, for whites there is no difference between the high and the intermediate areas and in the case of the blacks the intermediate areas actually have higher participation rates than the areas of low unemployment.

Table 4.9 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Level of Overall Unemployment Rate in Local Labor Market in 1967, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

1967 unemployment rate in local labor market	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate
Less than 3.1	2,164	64.0	188	64.0
3.1 - 5.0	3,608	61.0	506	66.5
5.1 or more	1,623	60.8	366	59.6
Total or average	7,394	61.8	1,060	63.7

IV PROSPECTIVE LABOR MARKET ACTIVITY OF MARRIED WOMEN CURRENTLY OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE

In this section we examine the prospective labor force participation of the 2,256,000 married white and 197,000 married black young women[17] who were not in school and not in the labor force at the time of the survey. A prospective labor force entrant is defined as a woman who indicated that she would or might accept a job in her community if offered one.[18] Our purposes in this section are threefold: (1) to identify the factors that influence a woman's response to the hypothetical job offer; (2) to assess the likelihood that women who respond affirmatively will soon enter the labor force;[19] and (3) to determine what conditions (e.g., wage rate, hours of work, location, etc.) the young woman might impose on such a job, the realism of which we shall wish to assess.[20]

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[17] The data in this section include married women 14 to 17 years of age as well as those 18 to 24.

[18] "If you were offered a job by some employer in this area, do you think you would take it?"

Factors Influencing Willingness to Take a Job

When a married woman with children who is currently not in the labor force is confronted with the prospect of a job, her reaction is strongly associated with her perception of her husband's attitude toward her working (Table 4.10).[21] Of the white women who report that their husbands are favorably disposed to the idea of their working, two-thirds say they would accept a job if offered one, but this proportion is only two-fifths among those whose husbands are mildly opposed and as low as one-fifth where the husband is reported to have strong objections. Data for blacks are not shown in Table 4.10 because the numbers of sample cases in some categories are too small to permit confident generalization, but the same pattern appears to prevail for them. Also interesting is the fact that the blacks are much more likely than the whites to report favorable attitudes on the part of their husbands (64 percent versus 16 percent). Moreover, among those who say their husbands' attitudes are favorable, 84 percent of the blacks, compared with 66 percent of the whites say they would accept a job offer. As a consequence of both these factors, married black women with children are much more likely than their white counterparts to react favorably to a job offer.

Response to the hypothetical job offer is also associated, albeit less strongly, with the woman's attitude toward the propriety of labor market activity by mothers under certain specified conditions (Table 4.11). Those who say it is definitely or probably all right for women to work are more likely than those who say it is not all right to express a willingness to accept a job offer.

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[19] Women who said they would or might accept the hypothetical job offer were asked whether they expected to look for work within the next six months.

[20] Women who responded affirmatively to the hypothetical job offer were asked (a) "What kind of work would it have to be?" (b) "What would the wage or salary have to be?" (c) "Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking the job?"

[21] "How do you think your husband would feel about your working now--would he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?"

Table 4.10 Proportion Who Would Accept a Job in Local Area, by Perception of Husband's Attitude toward Wife's Working: White Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Who Are Out of the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School[a]

Perception of husband's attitude toward wife's working	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would accept
Likes	264	66
Does not care	193	60
Dislikes somewhat	358	40
Dislikes strongly	878	20
Total or average	1,832	35

(a) Includes only married women with children.

Women without children are no more likely to respond favorably to the job offer than those with children. About a third of each category of whites and seven-tenths of each category of blacks say they would accept the job. Recency of employment experience, however, has a slight effect. For instance, in the case of whites, the proportions reacting favorably to the hypothetical job offer are 30 percent of those who have never worked, 34 percent of those who last worked prior to 1965, and about 40 percent of those whose last job was sometime in 1967 or 1968 (Table 4.12).

Job-Seeking Intentions and Job Requirements

Are the women who respond affirmatively to the hypothetical job offer likely to enter the labor force soon? Based on their reported intentions, a majority of the blacks but only a minority of the whites will do so. Of those who said they would take a job if one were offered, 69 percent of the black women and 26 percent of the white plan to seek employment within the next six months (Table 4.13). Applying these percentages to the proportions of those out of the labor force who would or might accept a hypothetical job leads to the estimate that about 10 percent of the married whites and almost half of the married blacks who are currently out of the labor force will spend some time in the labor force during the next year.

Table 4.11 Proportion Who Would Accept a Job in Local Area, by Attitude toward Employment of Mothers under Specified Circumstances[(a)] and Color: Married Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Out of the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School

Attitude and circumstance[(a)]	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would accept	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would accept
Work to make ends meet				
All right	2,076	35	189	69
Not all right	180	35	8	(c)
Total or average (b)	2,256	35	197	69
Work if husband agrees				
All right	1,579	39	173	70
Not all right	677	27	22	(c)
Total or average (b)	2,256	35	195	68
Work if husband does not agree				
All right	180	49	35	71
Not all right	2,076	34	154	71
Total or average (b)	2,256	35	189	71

(a) See footnote 14 for explication of the questionnaire item.
(b) Excludes those who offered no opinion or who were undecided.
(c) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 4.12 Proportion Who Would Accept a Job in Local Area, by Date Respondent Last Employed and Color: Married Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Who Are Out of the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School

Date last employed	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would accept	Total number (thousands)	Percent who would accept
1967-1968	762	40	86	70
1965-1966	604	37	46	85
Before 1965	361	34	14	(a)
Never worked	396	30	44	66
Total or average	2,256	35	197	69

(a) Percent not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Another way of assessing the significance of the responses to the hypothetical job offer is to inquire why those who indicated they would accept such an offer are not in fact looking for work currently. A large proportion give reasons that cast some doubt upon their availability for work, at least in the immediate future (Table 4.13). Thus, about seven out of ten of both color groups offer personal or family reasons, including the objections of husbands to their taking jobs. Only 3 percent of the whites and 6 percent of the blacks report that they believe no jobs are available for them.

The distribution of the young women by type of work they would accept is not substantially different from the occupational distribution of employed women, although the proportion of blacks specifying white-collar work is smaller than the proportion of employed blacks who are in such jobs, and the proportion specifying domestic service is considerably larger. About two-thirds of the whites and a fourth of the blacks indicate they would want white-collar work; a tenth of the whites and a sixth of the blacks say they would accept "anything."

The wages they report being willing to take do not appear to be excessive relative to those earned by currently employed women, particularly in the case of the blacks, although breakdowns by education and experience (precluded by the size of the sample) would be required for a definitive judgment on this matter. About a fourth of the white women and almost half of the black would accept work at less than $1.50 per hour. Less than a tenth of the whites and 1 percent of the blacks would require a wage of $2.50 or more per hour.

Table 4.13 Percentage Distributions by Selected Characteristics: Married Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Who Are Out of the Labor Force, Not Enrolled in School, and Who Would Accept a Job in Local Area
(Percentage distributions)

Selected characteristic	WHITES	BLACKS
Total number (thousands)	782	136
Plans to look for work in next six months?		
Yes	26	69
No	74	31
Total percent	100	100
Reason not looking for work currently		
Believe no jobs available	3	6
Personal, family reasons	64	63
Husband objects	8	6
Health	3	5
Bad time of year	4	3
Don't need money	6	1
Other or no reason	13	16
Total percent	100	100
Type of work required		
White-collar	64	25
Blue-collar	9	18
Domestic service	0	29
Nondomestic service	16	11
Farm	0	0
"Anything"	11	17
Total percent	100	100
Hourly wage required		
Less than $1.00	1	11
$1.00 - 1.49	23	38
$1.50 - 1.99	43	45
$2.00 - 2.49	25	5
$2.50 - 2.99	7	1
$3.00 or more	1	0
Total percent	100	100
Restrictions on job		
None	23	48
Hours	27	17
Location	17	19
Both hours/location	26	14
Other	7	2
Total percent	100	100

Yet, while neither the type of work nor the wage they are willing to accept appears at least prima facie to be unduly restrictive, the same cannot be said as confidently about the other types of conditions they would impose--at least in the case of the white women. Only a fourth of them, compared with about half the black women, answered in the negative to the query "Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking the job?" A fourth of the whites imposed hours restrictions, about one in six imposed location restrictions, and an additional one-fourth mentioned both of these qualifications. While it is difficult to evaluate this response pattern without knowing the precise nature of the conditions imposed, it raises the suspicion that substantial numbers of those who said they would take a job may not realistically be available for work.

V SUMMARY

Among young women 18 to 24 years of age who are not enrolled in school, the most important single factor affecting the extent of their labor market activity is whether they have children. Among whites the labor force participation rate of those who have children is 46 percentage points higher than for those without children; for the blacks the difference is much smaller, but still about 20 percentage points. Among women with no children, marital status also makes a difference, but not nearly so great--less than 10 percentage points in favor of the nonmarried in the case of both color groups.

Irrespective of marital and family status, educational attainment is positively related to the extent of labor force participation, suggesting that access to higher-paying and more attractive jobs is an inducement to labor market activity on the part of these young women.[22] Having typing and shorthand skills also increases the probability of labor force activity, especially in the case of black women. Finally, another reflection of the same type of influence is the fact that labor market activity is positively related to average hourly wage rate for those who have worked in the recent past.

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[22] It is likely, incidentally, that our data understate the full importance of years of schooling, at least among married women. The reason is that highly educated women are likely to be married to men with above-average education and, consequently, above-average incomes. Since husband's income is known to be negatively related to wife's labor force participation, other things being equal (Bowen and Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation, pp. 132-34), it follows that the independent effect of wife's education on her labor force participation is understated when husband's income is not controlled.

For the out-of-school young women under consideration here there is obviously a relationship between age and educational attainment, which is one reason why labor market activity rates increase with advancing age, controlling for marital and family status. Nevertheless, there also appears to be an independent effect of age on labor force participation, at least between white women in their late teens and those in their early twenties.

Not surprisingly, a woman's health or physical condition is strongly related to the extent of her labor market activity, as is her attitude toward the propriety of employment outside the home for mothers of preschool-age children. Married mothers who have permissive views on this question are considerably more likely to be in the labor force than those who oppose the idea. The same relationship, although much less pronounced, exists in the case of married women without children.

Labor market factors also affect the probability of a young woman's being in the labor force. Participation rates tend to be highest in those areas where the industrial structure is such as to contain a high proportion of "women's jobs" and also in those areas where the overall unemployment rate is low.

The overall difference in the extent of labor market activity between black and white young women is not very great. For the total group under consideration the difference in the labor force participation rate, for example, is only 2 percentage points in favor of the blacks. The most noticeable disparity exists among married women with children where there is a 25 percentage point difference between the two color groups. But it is clear that if black women, as a group, were distributed as the whites are with respect to marital and family status and with respect to education, their participation rate would be much higher than that of the whites.

The prospective participation of young married women currently out of the labor force is strongly related to whether the woman perceives her husband's attitude toward her working as being favorable. Compared to married whites, married blacks are (1) more likely to perceive their husbands' attitudes as favoring the idea of their working; (2) more willing to accept a hypothetical job offer; (3) more likely to expect to look for a job in the next six months; and (4) less likely to impose any requirements on the nature of the conditions of the hypothetical job, if they were to accept it.

CHAPTER FIVE*

UNEMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE OF NONSTUDENTS

I INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters, we have examined the labor force and employment status of girls enrolled in school and the labor force participation rates of nonstudents. We turn now to an examination of the unemployment experience of women 18 to 24 years of age who are not enrolled in school. Our purpose is to describe a number of important personal correlates of unemployment and to ascertain the effect that demand conditions may have had in determining the level of unemployment experienced by young women in the sample.

Aside from questions concerning the overall level of unemployment among young women and the composition of the unemployed group, we are interested in the extent to which joblessness is related to labor force entry rather than to job loss. We also examine the data to see whether unemployment seems to be experienced repeatedly by the same group of people over time. It is worth noting that seasonality in retail sales and changes in federal wage minima may have had a special impact on unemployment at the time of the survey, although the tabulations currently available to us do not permit a rigorous test of these speculations at the present time.

Several measures of unemployment are presented in the text; the principal one is the conventional unemployment rate in the survey week. An analogous measure for the preceding year is the ratio of weeks of unemployment to weeks in the labor force. A third measure is the fraction of those in the labor force at least one week in 1967 who experienced at least one week of unemployment; this is a measure of incidence. Finally, we use a measure of average cumulative duration: weeks unemployed in 1967 per respondent with one or more weeks of unemployment in that year. With the exception of Table 5.2, all measures based on work history information for 1967 have been relegated to the appendix of this chapter. The most salient relationships are discussed in the text.

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In the next section of this chapter we examine a number of personal correlates of unemployment: age, marital and family characteristics, education and training, health limitations, and attitudes toward school and work. The succeeding section examines labor force experience in 1967; occupation, industry and rate of pay on current or last job; and local labor market conditions. A summary concludes the chapter.

II PERSONAL CORRELATES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The relatively high unemployment rate for this group of young women is one of the chief symptoms of their labor market problems. Nevertheless, the group is by no means a homogeneous one from the standpoint of the amount of unemployment they experience. In this section we examine some of the personal factors that are associated with the overall level of their unemployment and with variations in unemployment rates among them.

Age and Marital and Family Status

In Table 5.1, we show labor force participation rates and unemployment rates for out-of-school respondents. The former are reviewed because of our anticipation that there might be interesting and important relationships between unemployment and labor force participation--as, for example, the discouraged worker effect, the frictional unemployment that is often associated with labor force entry or reentry, and intercolor variation in labor force attachment.

As with participation rates, there is considerable variation in unemployment rates by age, color, and marital and family status. In general, the unemployment rate of blacks is nearly twice as high as that of whites, whether it is the entire group of 18 to 24 year olds (17.6 versus 9.8 percent), or only the married or the nonmarried being considered. By marital and family status, the patterns are similar within each color group.[1] Unemployment is higher among married women and lower among nonmarried. When the presence or absence of children is added to the equation, a higher unemployment rate is associated with the presence of children, except in the case of nonmarried whites.

With few exceptions, there are inadequate sample cases in the 18 to 19 year old group to warrant a confident statement about unemployment by age. However, except for nonmarried white women with no children, unemployment rates among the younger age group appear to be higher than

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[1] For a definition of marital status categories, see the Glossary, Appendix A.

Table 5.1 Labor Force Participation and Unemployment Rates, by Age, Marital and Family Status, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School

Age and marital and family status	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Unemployment rate
18-24						
Married	4,150	47.8	11.1	439	59.5	22.2
Without children	1,494	74.9	8.8	92	67.4	21.0
With children	2,656	32.5	14.1	347	57.3	22.6
Nonmarried	3,208	79.9	8.7	603	66.5	15.0
Without children	2,797	84.3	11.0	388	75.8	14.3
With children	411	50.1	8.7	215	49.8	16.8
Total or average(a)	7,394	61.8	9.8	1,060	63.7	17.6
Without children	4,291	81.0	8.8	480	74.2	15.4
With children	3,067	34.9	13.1	562	54.4	20.6
18-19						
Married	600	53.5	24.9	75	56.0	31.0
Without children	337	64.4	20.7	16	(b)	(b)
With children	263	39.5	33.7	59	55.9	27.3
Nonmarried	1,179	73.1	8.5	173	66.5	18.3
Without children	1,101	75.9	8.3	133	72.2	17.8
With children	78	(b)	(b)	40	47.5	10.5
Total or average(a)	1,792	66.3	13.0	258	64.3	21.1
Without children	1,438	73.2	10.8	149	70.5	21.9
With children	341	38.1	30.0	99	52.5	21.2

(a) Includes a small number for whom marital and family status was not ascertained.
(b) Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

average. In part, this may reflect underlying variation in educational attainment, as well as the fact that those in the older age group are more likely to possess somewhat greater work experience.[2]

The proportion of black young women 18 to 24 years of age with work experience who were in the labor force at some time during 1967 (91.8 percent) was somewhat higher than that of the white young women (83.4 percent) (Table 5.2). Not only did the blacks experience greater unemployment during the survey week than did the whites, but of those in the labor force in 1967, a greater proportion of blacks than whites experienced unemployment at some time during that year--35 percent of the former and 23 percent of the latter. The influence of marital status on unemployment experience was stronger among blacks than whites. For blacks, the unemployment percentages are 28 percent for the married and 40 percent for the nonmarried, while for whites the corresponding figures are 21 and 25 percent, respectively. Similarly, the presence of children was more influential for blacks: blacks without children were more likely to have experienced unemployment than blacks with children (38 versus 32 percent), while whites with or without children were equally likely to have been unemployed (23 percent each).

The more serious impact of unemployment on blacks than whites is indicated by yet another measure of unemployment--weeks unemployed as a percentage of weeks in the labor force in 1967. These rates are 11 percent for black nonstudents and 5 percent for their white counterparts. There is relatively little variation in this measure by marital status, although the presence of children again exerts a strong influence. This measure of unemployment is influenced both by the incidence of unemployment--i.e., the percentage of women in the labor force at some time in 1967 who experienced at least one week of joblessness--and the average cumulative duration of the unemployment that they experienced.

The relationships among these several measures are of interest. In the case of out-of-school white women, the proportion of weeks unemployed in 1967 is higher among the 18 to 19 year olds than the older group. The opposite is true for blacks. The higher proportion of weeks unemployed for the younger than for the older white girls, however, is not attributable to any age difference in the average cumulative duration of joblessness,

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[2] A comparison of the data in Table 5.1 with similar information from our earlier report on the labor market experiences of a cohort of women aged 30 to 44 shows that unemployment rates for the younger exceed rates for the older women in both marital statuses and both color categories. Unemployment patterns by marital and family status are basically similar within age cohorts. In making such a comparison, however, it should be kept in mind that the fact that the younger women were surveyed in February while the older women were surveyed in May means that there are some seasonal differences in the data which limit the precision with which the comparisons may be made.

Table 5.2 Incidence and Average Cumulative Duration of Unemployment, by Age, Marital and Family Status, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age with Work Experience Not Enrolled in School

Age and marital and family status	Total number (thousands)	In labor force at some time in 1967 (thousands)	In labor force at some time in 1967 as percent of total	With some unemployment in 1967 (thousands)	With some unemployment in 1967 as percent of number in labor force in 1967	Mean weeks in labor force in 1967	Weeks unemployed as percent of weeks in labor force in 1967	Mean weeks of unemployment of those with some unemployment in 1967
				WHITES				
18-19 years								
Total or average	1,641	1,512	92.1	432	28.6	29.6	6.4	7.2
20-24 years								
Total or average	5,247	4,233	80.7	872	20.6	30.5	3.9	7.2
18-24 years								
Married	3,795	2,831	74.6	591	20.9	24.8	4.8	7.4
Without children	1,433	1,361	95.0	272	20.0	38.8	3.6	7.4
With children	2,362	1,470	62.2	319	21.7	16.3	6.1	7.4
Nonmarried	3,061	2,886	94.3	713	24.7	36.9	4.6	7.3
Without children	2,682	2,591	96.6	630	24.3	38.5	4.2	6.8
With children	379	295	77.8	83	28.1	25.5	9.4	11.0
Total or average (a)	6,888	5,744	83.4	1,304	22.7	30.3	4.6	7.4
Without children	4,115	3,952	96.0	902	22.8	38.6	3.9	6.8
With children	2,741	1,765	64.4	402	22.8	17.6	6.8	8.2
				BLACKS				
18-19 years								
Total or average	220	201	91.4	71	35.3	28.2	8.5	7.4
20-24 years								
Total or average	734	675	91.9	239	35.2	32.6	11.3	11.4
18-24 years								
Married	400	347	86.8	97	28.0	25.6	7.6	7.6
Without children	91	85	93.4	27	31.8	33.4	7.2	7.8
With children	309	261	84.5	70	26.8	23.3	7.7	7.5
Nonmarried	538	512	95.2	203	39.6	36.2	11.4	11.8
Without children	350	341	97.4	134	39.3	38.1	10.2	10.3
With children	188	171	91.0	69	40.4	32.7	16.5	14.8
Total or average (a)	953	876	91.8	310	35.4	31.6	10.8	10.5
Without children	441	426	96.6	161	37.8	37.2	9.6	9.8
With children	497	433	87.1	139	32.1	27.1	11.7	10.3

(a) Includes a few women whose marital and family status was not ascertained.

which is seven weeks for both age groups. Rather, it reflects a somewhat higher incidence of unemployment among those in the younger age category; 29 percent of the white 18 to 19 year olds, but only 21 percent of the 20 to 24 year olds, report having experienced some unemployment in 1967.

Among blacks, however, it is the older group that has the greater unemployment experience in 1967, as measured by the ratio of weeks of unemployment to weeks in the labor force. In this case, the difference is not attributable to variation in the incidence of unemployment; 35 percent of the blacks in both age groups experienced some unemployment during 1967. The higher level of unemployment among 20 to 24 year old black women is a function of the greater average duration of their unemployment--11 weeks within this age group, compared to seven weeks for their 18 to 19 year old counterparts.

Looked at slightly differently, the several measures of unemployment shown in Table 5.2 suggest that the adverse unemployment experience of younger black nonstudents relative to their white counterparts is almost entirely attributable to a higher incidence of unemployment. That is, a larger proportion of the blacks experienced some unemployment. On the other hand, in the older age category both a higher incidence and a longer duration of unemployment help account for the inferior employment experience of the blacks.

Education and Training

As anticipated, the rate of unemployment among youth out of school decreases as educational attainment increases, but there is a very interesting interaction between age, family status, and years of school completed (Table 5.3). Among 18 to 24 year olds in the labor force, the conventional unemployment rate is nearly twice as high among blacks as among whites, with 17.6 percent of the former and 9.8 percent of the latter unemployed. Within that age range, the intercolor differential is greater for 20 to 24 year olds than for 18 to 19 year olds, although the younger group also exhibits a gap which is significant.

Educational attainment has a strong negative association with the rate of unemployment for respondents without children. Among respondents with children, however, the pattern is less consistent. This may be the result of frequent unemployment associated with reentry to the labor force, although this interpretation will remain speculative until we have a chance to examine the data more thoroughly. There are also some interesting unemployment relationships according to education when age and family status are controled. Although not shown in the table in this detail, it appears that the incidence of unemployment diminishes with the attainment of 12 years of education even within age and family status categories.

Table 5.3 Unemployment Rates, by Age, Family Status, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School(a)

Age, family status, and highest year of school completed	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
18-19				
Without children	1,054	10.9	105	21.9
Less than 12	111	11.7	23	(c)
12 or more	943	10.8	81	19.8
With children	129	30.2	52	21.2
Less than 12	91	(c)	24	(c)
12 or more	38	(c)	27	25.9
Total or average(b)	1,188	13.0	166	21.1
20-24				
Without children	2,425	7.9	251	12.7
Less than 12	136	33.1	47	14.9
12	1,370	6.1	126	15.1
13 or more	919	6.9	76	6.6
With children	940	10.7	255	20.4
Less than 12	279	9.7	114	33.3
12	544	10.5	102	9.8
13 or more	117	14.5	33	12.1
Total or average(b)	3,382	8.6	509	16.5
18-24				
Without children	3,477	8.8	356	15.4
Less than 12	245	23.7	70	20.0
12	2,243	8.1	205	16.6
13 or more	989	6.8	96	6.2
With children	1,070	13.1	307	20.5
Less than 12	370	15.7	138	29.7
12	578	11.2	174	15.5
13 or more	122	13.9	64	12.5
Total or average(b)	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes only women with work experience.

(b) Includes a few women for whom family status was not ascertained.

(c) Rates not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Not only does unemployment vary depending on highest year of school completed, but the nature and quality of education and training experiences also appear to be important. While to some extent intercorrelated, the several measures of skill acquisition cited in Table 5.4 seem to warrant the following observations: first, girls, especially whites, who went through the general education curriculum are likely to have experienced more unemployment than those from other programs; second, for black young women, participants in the general or in the college preparatory curricula are almost twice as likely to have experienced unemployment as those in the commercial curriculum. With respect to these observations, it seems worthwhile to note that those in general curricula may be below-average students who usually do not go on to college; and furthermore, that the whites who have pursued college preparatory curricula are likely to have completed more years of education than their black counterparts.

While the number of blacks and whites who report having pursued vocational programs is too small to permit confident statements, some of the association between skill training and unemployment can be seen from a consideration of the girls' exposure to typing and shorthand. Within both color groups, those with typing and shorthand have the lowest levels of unemployment (Table 5.4). Furthermore, intercolor variation, high among those with neither typing nor shorthand and those with typing only, is reduced to some 1.3 percentage points when both have typing and shorthand. In sum, while blacks are less likely to have had both typing and shorthand than their white counterparts, acquisition of these skills in high school exerts a more favorable influence on the unemployment rates of the former than of the latter. This suggests some policy implications with respect to education and training, although the fact that shorthand success may be a proxy, in part, for general ability and language skills requires that any such implications be drawn with care.

When the extent of occupational training received outside regular school is considered, it is not the number of vocational training programs but their duration that most affects the girls' probability of being unemployed (Table 5.4). The relationship, however, is not clear for the blacks. The possession of a professional or trade certificate also appears to reduce the probability of the typical young girl being unemployed. Among the whites, only 3.4 percent of those with trade and 4.1 percent with professional certificates were unemployed at the time of the survey, whereas 11.0 percent of those with no certificates were jobless.

Health Limitations

The survey week unemployment rate for white girls with no health problems is 9.4 percent compared with 16.1 percent for those who report health conditions affecting their work. For blacks, however, the relationship is unexpectedly reversed; 18.3 percent of those reporting no limitations are unemployed, compared with only 2.8 percent of those who say their health places limitations upon their activities (Table 5.5). In any case, only a small proportion of young women in the labor force report health limitations.

Table 5.4 Unemployment Rates, by Selected Education and Training Characteristics and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School(a)

Education and training characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
High school curriculum(b)				
Vocational	60	8.3	29	13.8
Commercial	1,290	6.2	105	10.5
College preparatory	1,414	5.7	115	18.3
General	1,658	14.7	365	19.7
Total or average	4,440	9.3	616	17.4
Clerical courses completed(b)				
Neither	601	13.0	190	23.2
Typing only	1,975	11.1	255	19.6
Typing and shorthand(c)	1,824	6.4	169	7.7
Total or average	4,440	9.3	616	17.4
Extent of occupational training received outside regular school				
None	2,517	10.4	383	21.1
One program	1,705	8.7	228	12.3
Less than 3 months	456	13.6	74	16.2
3, but less than 6 months	537	8.6	60	5.0
6 months, but less than 1 year	385	6.0	54	14.8
1 year or more	327	5.5	39	12.8
Two or more programs	265	10.6	51	11.8
Less than 1 year	156	18.6	21	(d)
1 year or more	110	0.0	29	3.4
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6
Professional or trade certification				
None	3,761	11.0	629	17.6
Trade certificate	266	3.4	30	6.7
Professional certificate	533	4.1	15	(d)
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes only women with work experience.
(b) Includes only women who have attended high school.
(c) Includes a small number of women who have had shorthand, but no typing.
(d) Rates not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 5.5 Unemployment Rates, by Effect of Health on Work and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School[(a)]

Effect of health on work	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Does not limit work	4,296	9.4	638	18.3
Limits work	255	16.1	35	2.8
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes only women with work experience.

Attitudes toward Work and School

Certain attitudinal variables may either influence or reflect the unemployment experiences of young women. In particular, we are interested in attitudes toward the propriety of mothers of young children working, reactions to high school experience, and assessments of the effect of ending education (Table 5.6). Those who are permissive with respect to the employment of mothers with preschool children are more likely to be unemployed than either those who are ambivalent or those who are opposed, with the latter the least susceptible of all. This relationship holds for both whites and blacks, and may stem from underlying differences in attachment to the labor force. For instance, it may be that women who look favorably on the idea of mothers working are more inclined than others to stay in the labor force when they lose a job.

As anticipated, more of the young women who disliked rather than liked their high school experience were unemployed when interviewed in 1968. The differences in unemployment, of course, may reflect underlying variation in educational attainment. In any event, it may be that a dislike for school stems from a lack of success in school or a particular attitudinal set, either of which may contribute to an increased likelihood of experiencing unemployment. Alternatively, it may be that unemployment tends to cause a young woman to depreciate her high school experience retrospectively.

Related to this interpretation is the relationship between unemployment and a young woman's perception of the effects of ending her education. Girls reporting that the termination of their education has not been detrimental have a lower rate of unemployment than those who believe it has hurt them. This is true for both blacks and whites, although there is substantially less difference in unemployment rates between the two evaluative categories among blacks than among whites.

Table 5.6 Unemployment Rates, by Selected Attitudinal Measures and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School(a)

Attitudinal measure	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Attitude toward employment of mothers				
Permissive	886	12.2	197	18.8
Ambivalent	2,371	9.4	385	17.7
Opposed	1,290	9.1	93	15.0
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6
Reaction to high school experience(b)				
Like it very much	1,698	9.5	305	20.6
Like it fairly well	1,233	8.3	160	15.0
Dislike it	360	17.5	35	25.7
Total or average	3,327	9.9	503	19.3
Effect of ending education(c)				
Hurt	1,330	17.4	410	20.0
Did not hurt	1,952	5.3	180	17.8
Total or average	4,098	10.2	649	18.2

(a) Includes only women with work experience.

(b) Includes only women who are high school graduates.

(c) Includes only women who are not college graduates.

III LABOR MARKET CORRELATES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Labor Force and Unemployment Experiences in 1967

It is frequently suggested that unemployment may be a repetitive experience for many who bear its incidence. With this in mind, we have examined the survey week unemployment rates of out-of-school respondents 18 to 24 years of age, by selected measures of labor force experience in 1967 (Table 5.7). For both black and white young women, the rate of unemployment in the survey week appears to fall as the number of weeks in the labor force in 1967 increases--at least up to a certain point.

When the measure of labor force experience under consideration is weeks worked instead of weeks in the labor force, an even stronger pattern emerges. For the black girls, unemployment rates diminish monotonically as weeks worked increase, with the greatest change occurring between the 14 to 26 weeks category and the 27 to 39 weeks category. In the case of the whites, the pattern is quite similar. The range in survey week unemployment for the whites is from 37.0 to 1.7 percent, while for the blacks it is from 75.9 to 4.1 percent. The data suggest quite strongly that a considerable proportion of the unemployment in 1968 was associated with reentry to the work force.

Relating survey week unemployment to weeks unemployed in 1967, there is a clear positive relationship, especially among the white women. Those with 1 to 14 weeks of unemployment in 1967 have current unemployment rates more than twice as high as those who were not unemployed at all; and those who had 15 or more weeks of unemployment in the preceding year have a current rate more than six times as high.[3] The pattern is generally similar for blacks, except that the positive association is less consistent than in the case of the whites and the range of variation is narrower.

Occupation of Current or Last Job

Looking at occupation of current (or last) job, blue-collar workers are more than twice as likely as white-collar workers to have been unemployed at the time of the survey (Table 5.8). Within the white-collar category, white sales workers had the highest jobless rate, while professional and technical workers had the lowest. The high rate among the former may have been, in part at least, a reflection of seasonality in wholesale and retail trade, since respondents were interviewed in February, just two months after the Christmas rush. Nondomestic service workers had the second highest rate of unemployment among both whites and blacks.

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[3] It should be recognized that, because of the February survey date, a part of this relationship can no doubt be explained by the fact that some of what appears as a spell of unemployment in 1967 and another spell of current unemployment may in fact be a single, continuous spell of unemployment.

Table 5.7 Unemployment Rates, by Selected Measures of Labor Force Participation in 1967 and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School(a)

Measure of labor force participation, 1967	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Weeks in labor force				
25 or less	1,020	20.9	182	39.0
26-37	613	12.1	69	27.5
38-47	446	4.7	85	4.9
48-51	314	5.7	44	10.0
52	2,173	5.3	295	8.0
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6
Weeks worked				
None	200	37.0	29	75.9
1-6	149	18.1	32	50.0
7-13	268	25.7	71	39.4
14-26	716	16.1	118	26.3
27-39	582	12.9	97	9.3
40-49	626	7.7	105	4.8
50-51	219	1.9	23	(b)
52	1,800	1.7	201	4.1
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6
Weeks unemployed				
None	3,613	7.0	446	15.0
1-4	566	14.7	97	13.4
5-14	256	18.4	70	31.4
15 or more	130	43.1	62	25.8
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes only those women with work experience.
(b) Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

The relationship between occupation and the incidence and duration of unemployment is also of interest (Table 5A-2). For example, Table 5.8 indicates that, although the number of sample cases is small in most instances, black professional and technical workers may be less susceptible to unemployment than white. Table 5A-2, however, reveals a much greater unemployment burden on the former than on the latter, both in terms of weeks unemployed as a percent of weeks in the labor force in 1967 and mean weeks of unemployment of those with some unemployment in 1967. These relationships, of course, could be specious, since they rest on a very small number of sample cases.

Table 5.8 Unemployment Rates, by Type of Occupation on Current (Last) Job and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age In the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School[a]

Occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
White-collar	3,066	7.2	263	11.4
Professional, technical	744	3.1	45	2.2
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	69	(c)	4	(c)
Clerical	2,011	6.4	204	10.8
Sales	242	24.4	10	(c)
Blue-collar	735	16.6	171	27.5
Domestic service	91	(c)	82	8.5
Nondomestic service	619	14.1	142	19.7
Total or average[b]	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes only women with work experience.

(b) Includes a small number of women farm workers, not shown separately.

(c) Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Of the major occupational groups, those in nondomestic service jobs experienced the longest average cumulative duration of unemployment in 1967. This is true for both blacks and whites, and the average number of weeks is about the same for both color groups (12.4 and 12.8 weeks, respectively). Low for whites is the white-collar category (6.2 weeks), with domestic service and blue-collar in between at 9.6 weeks and 6.9 weeks, respectively. For blacks, the blue-collar group is low at 9.0 weeks, while nondomestic service workers report 12.4 weeks and white-collar 10.2 weeks. Thus, for the whites, the spread in number of weeks between the major occupation group ranking highest and that ranking lowest according to this measure is greater than it is for blacks. Also for whites, the number of weeks is at a lower level than for blacks for all except the highest ranking occupation. As for weeks unemployed as a percent of weeks in the labor force in 1967, the percentages are greatest for domestic service workers of both color groups (13.0 percent for blacks and 11.5 percent for whites); and the white-collar category is low (6.8 and 3.4 percent). Again, blacks report higher rates in every major classification.

Industry of Current or Last Job

The rank ordering of unemployment rates by industry is much the same for whites and blacks (Table 5.9). Consistent with the pattern of unemployment by occupation, women who last worked in wholesale and retail trade experienced the highest rate of unemployment; the lowest rates were among those whose current (last) job was in finance, insurance, and real estate, or in public administration. These configurations tend to hold for the 18 and 19 year olds and the 20 to 24 year olds taken separately, as well as for the full group of 18 to 24 year olds.

Table 5.9 Unemployment Rates, by Current (Last) Industry and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School

Industry	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Manufacturing	1,145	10.5	147	23.1
Transportation	315	9.9	44	9.1
Wholesale and retail trade	689	19.4	92	37.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate	389	2.6	26	0.0
Domestic service	99	13.1	82	8.5
Nondomestic service	1,533	7.4	227	13.6
Public administration	244	4.1	32	6.2
Total or average(a)	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes other industry groups not shown separately.

Average Hourly Earnings

Undoubtedly reflecting many of the same factors that are involved in the relation between occupation and joblessness is the fact that survey week unemployment is concentrated among those who earned between \$1.00 and \$1.49 per hour on their last jobs and is least prevalent among those with higher rates of pay (Table 5.10). Whites with hourly wages below \$1.00 and blacks earning \$1.50 to \$1.99 have the next highest unemployment rates. Unemployment rates show a monotonic decline with wage rates from \$1.50 upward. Young women receiving \$2.50 or more per hour--whether black or white--enjoyed the lowest unemployment rates.

As already mentioned, those earning between \$1.00 and \$1.49 experienced the highest rates of unemployment. This is true throughout the age cohort, but particularly for the 18 to 19 year olds. In general, at the lower levels of pay, unemployment rates are, as usual, higher for blacks than for whites. As pay levels rise, however, rates of unemployment for the blacks become less than those for the whites, so that blacks within pay rate ranges above \$1.99 per hour are less likely to be unemployed than are their white counterparts. At this time, we are not sure what factors account for this reversal.

Table 5.10 Unemployment Rates, by Hourly Rate of Pay on Current (Last) Job and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School(a)

Hourly rate of pay	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Less than \$1.00	174	8.6	51	9.8
\$1.00-\$1.49	596	25.7	130	30.8
\$1.50-\$1.99	1,519	6.4	226	11.5
\$2.00-\$2.49	1,013	5.2	108	4.6
\$2.50 or more	782	2.4	56	1.8
Total or average	4,389	8.4	644	14.0

(a) Includes only women who have worked since January 1, 1967, as wage or salary workers.

As pointed out above, unemployment at the time of the survey in February 1968, was concentrated in several areas, particularly among those whose last employment was in wholesale and retail trade. Presumably, many young women earning between $1.00 and $1.49 per hour were last employed in that industry group. Without controlling for work experience and highest year of school completed, however, it is impossible to ascertain to what extent--if any--high unemployment rates for the group mentioned result from seasonality factors in the trade sector and from the increases in federal wage minima under the Fair Labor Standards Act that went into effect on February 1, 1968.

Local Labor Market Characteristics

Unemployment rates among white young women are generally higher in small than in large labor market areas (Table 5.11). The rate for whites in areas with a labor force less than 100,000 is nearly double that in areas whose labor force size exceeds 500,000--11.2 compared to 6.4 percent. For blacks, however, there is a difference in unemployment rates of only 1 percent between these areas (18.9 versus 17.9 percent), and the relationship is irregular when all three size-of-area categories are taken into consideration.

When one examines joblessness during 1967, it is clear for both color groups that weeks of unemployment as a percentage of weeks in the labor force in 1967 is consistently and negatively associated with size of the labor force in the local area (Table 5A-3). The same is true with respect to average cumulative duration. Furthermore, our measure of incidence--percentage of those in the labor force in 1967 who experienced some unemployment--reveals a large difference for blacks according to labor force size. Specifically, while only one-fourth of young black women in the largest local labor markets experienced at least one week of unemployment, the same was true of nearly two-fifths of those in smaller areas.

It was anticipated that the unemployment rate for the young girls would be higher in areas where the demand for female labor is relatively low (Table 5.11). Among the blacks, this expectation is met. Among the whites, however, there is virtually no difference. Further, our measure of weeks lost to unemployment in 1967 and the duration of joblessness reveal the expected negative relationship between duration and labor demand for blacks, but not for whites (Table 5A-3).

For the most part, the unemployment experiences of young women move with the overall unemployment rate in the areas where they live (Table 5.11). The unemployment rates of 18 to 24 year olds are associated positively with the overall unemployment rate. It is interesting that our measure of percentage of weeks unemployed, our unemployment incidence measure, and our unemployment duration measure all say essentially the same thing, viz., that the overall rate of joblessness in an area is correlated with the unemployment experience of this group of young women. Moreover, it affects both the percentage of women who experience some unemployment and the average cumulative duration of that unemployment.

Table 5.11 Unemployment Rates, by Selected Characteristics of Local Labor Market and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age in the Labor Force and Not Enrolled in School[a]

Characteristic of local labor market	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate	Total number (thousands)	Unemployment rate
Size of labor force				
Less than 100,000	2,111	11.2	302	18.9
100,000-499,999	1,329	10.3	201	15.9
500,000 or more	1,130	6.4	173	17.9
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6
Index of demand for female labor				
High	2,577	9.8	399	15.8
Low	1,993	9.7	276	20.3
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6
1967 unemployment rate				
Less than 3.1 percent	1,386	7.3	121	13.2
3.1-5.0 percent	2,198	10.8	337	16.9
5.1 percent or more	986	11.0	219	21.5
Total or average	4,570	9.8	675	17.6

(a) Includes only women with work experience.

IV SUMMARY

Unemployment among young women 18 to 24 years of age who are not enrolled in school is quite high. At the time of the survey, 9.8 percent of the whites and 17.6 percent of the blacks were unemployed. Perhaps reflecting less experience and education and more frequent movement into and out of the labor force, the teenagers (18 and 19 year olds) and the married women had somewhat higher unemployment rates than those who were 20 to 24 years of age and those who were not married. With the exception of 18 to 19 year old blacks, married women with children at home experienced more unemployment than did those without children. Over a third (35.4 percent) of all black women 18 to 24 years of age who were in the labor force at least one week during 1967 experienced some unemployment. The comparable incidence figure for white women was 22.7 percent. The average cumulative duration of unemployment experienced by the black young women was 10.5 weeks, while for their white counterparts it was 7.4 weeks.

Among the 18 to 24 year olds in the labor force, there is an expected negative association between years of school completed and rate of unemployment, although the patterns within age-and-marital-status categories are by no means consistent. This inconsistency may be attributable, in part, to the higher probability that a young woman with at least some college education--versus one with none--has recently entered the labor force. It is worth noting that, while there is some intercorrelation with years of school completed, the following categories of women had lower-than-average unemployment rates in the survey week: those who pursued a commercial or (in the case of whites) college preparatory curriculum in high school; those with both typing and shorthand training in high school; those with some training (especially of long duration) outside regular school; and those with professional and trade certificates.

Unemployment rates at the time of the survey also vary according to occupation. Blue-collar and nondomestic service workers have higher jobless rates than those in white-collar positions, although in the case of whites, sales workers are even more likely to have been unemployed.[4] High unemployment rates in February 1968 also are associated with little or no work experience in the preceding year and with extensive unemployment during that year.

Among whites (but apparently not among blacks) in the age group under consideration, women in the labor force who report health limitations have a higher-than-average unemployment rate. The same is true for labor force members in each color group who hold permissive views toward the propriety of work on the part of mothers who have preschool-age children. Furthermore, although the causal direction may well run from rather than to unemployment, there is a positive correlation between joblessness, on the one hand, and disliking one's high school experience or feeling that termination of education has "hurt," on the other.

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[4] Too few blacks were last employed as sales workers to allow an intercolor comparison here.

While hourly rate of pay on current (or last) job is intercorrelated with occupational assignment and educational attainment--two explanatory variables already discussed--it is worth pointing out that those young women between the ages of 18 and 24 who were in the labor force and whose last jobs paid between $1.00 and $1.49 per hour had an unemployment rate between two (blacks) and three (whites) times the overall average rate for the two color groups. In terms of industry of current (last) job, a disproportionately large percentage of the unemployed had worked in wholesale and retail trade, manufacturing, or (only in the case of blacks) nondomestic service. These patterns suggest that seasonality in sales (and perhaps production) may have been an important factor in accounting for the level and structure of the unemployment experienced.

Increases in federal wage minima also may have made a difference, although until we receive the data in usable form and can control statistically for several other intercorrelated variables (years of schooling, age, etc.) which theory suggests have independent effects on joblessness, this is mere speculation. Finally, it should be observed that overall unemployment rates in local labor markets are positively correlated with the rate of unemployment among young women in our sample. Other direct measures of labor market conditions display somewhat less consistency.

Table 5-A-1 Incidence and Average Cumulative Duration of Unemployment in 1967, by Family Status, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age with Work Experience and Not Enrolled in School

Family status and highest year of school completed	Total number in labor force at some time in 1967 (thousands)	Total number with some unemployment in 1967 (thousands)	Total number with some unemployment as percent of number in labor force, 1967	Mean weeks in labor force, 1967	Weeks of unemployment as percent of weeks in labor force, 1967	Mean weeks of unemployment of those with some unemployment in 1967
	WHITES					
Without children	3,952	902	22.8	38.6	3.9	6.8
Less than 12	347	107	30.8	29.9	6.0	6.5
12	2,506	564	22.5	40.8	4.2	7.8
13 or more	1,100	231	21.0	36.6	3.4	6.2
With children	1,765	402	22.8	17.6	6.8	8.2
Less than 12	614	148	21.1	16.6	6.0	6.3
12	963	213	22.1	18.0	6.7	8.5
13 or more	186	40	21.5	18.8	1.8	10.0
Total or average[(a)]	5,744	1,304	22.7	30.3	4.6	7.4
Less than 12	967	257	26.6	20.5	6.0	6.4
12	3,485	774	22.2	32.4	4.6	8.0
13 or more	1,292	272	21.1	33.2	3.9	6.8
	BLACKS					
Without children	425	161	37.9	36.8	9.8	9.8
Less than 12	99	42	42.4	31.0	15.8	11.9
12	244	89	36.5	38.6	8.7	9.3
13 or more	82	30	36.6	39.6	7.3	8.8
With children	434	140	32.3	26.8	11.9	11.4
Less than 12	208	69	33.2	23.1	14.3	11.8
12	184	57	31.0	30.1	9.0	9.6
13 or more	33	7	21.2	30.3	7.6	13.5
Total or average[(a)]	874	309	35.4	31.6	10.8	10.5
Less than 12	312	112	35.9	25.3	15.0	12.0
12	438	153	34.9	35.0	8.9	9.3
13 or more	116	37	31.9	36.0	7.5	9.7

(a) Includes women for whom family status was not ascertained.

Table 5-A-2 Incidence and Average Cumulative Duration of Unemployment in 1967, by Type of Occupation on Current (Last) Job and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age with Work Experience and Not Enrolled in School

Type of occupation	Total number in labor force at some time in 1967 (thousands)	Total number with some unemployment in 1967 (thousands)	Total number with some unemployment as percent of number in labor force, 1967	Mean weeks in labor force, 1967	Weeks of unemployment as percent of weeks in labor force, 1967	Mean weeks of unemployment of those with some unemployment in 1967
	WHITES					
White-collar	3,732	776	20.8	32.7	3.4	6.2
Professional, technical	792	114	14.4	37.1	2.4	6.6
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	89	15	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)
Clerical	2,519	552	21.9	33.1	3.3	5.9
Sales	331	94	28.4	20.5	1.6	7.5
Blue-collar	942	287	30.5	29.3	6.1	6.9
Domestic service	130	38	29.2	17.4	11.5	9.6
Nondomestic service	832	190	22.8	23.6	9.3	12.8
Total or average(a)	5,744	1,304	22.7	30.3	4.6	7.4
	BLACKS					
White-collar	312	96	30.8	35.7	6.8	10.2
Professional, technical	57	23	40.4	42.9	14.4	15.9
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	4	4	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)
Clerical	236	64	27.1	35.9	5.8	8.2
Sales	15	4	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)
Blue-collar	219	98	44.7	31.9	11.9	9.0
Domestic service	117	44	37.6	29.3	13.0	10.8
Nondomestic service	195	66	33.8	29.7	12.8	12.4
Total or average(a)	874	309	35.4	31.6	10.8	10.5

(a) Includes farm workers not shown separately.
(b) Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 5-A-3 Incidence and Average Cumulative Duration of Unemployment Experienced in 1967, by Selected Characteristics of Local Labor Market and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age with Work Experience and Not Enrolled in School

Characteristic of local labor market	Total number in labor force at some time in 1967 (thousands)	Total number with some unemployment in 1967 (thousands)	Total number with some unemployment as percent of number in labor force, 1967	Mean weeks in labor force, 1967	Weeks of unemployment as percent of weeks in labor force, 1967	Mean weeks of unemployment of those with some unemployment in 1967
	WHITES					
Size of labor force	5,744	1,304	22.7	30.3	4.6	7.4
500,000 or more	1,426	303	21.2	32.7	3.4	6.1
100,000-499,999	1,610	364	22.6	29.4	4.8	7.6
Less than 100,000	2,707	636	23.5	29.6	5.4	8.1
Index of demand for female labor	5,744	1,304	22.7	30.3	4.6	7.4
High	3,119	713	22.9	31.2	5.1	8.3
Low	2,625	591	22.5	29.2	4.1	6.5
1967 unemployment rate	5,744	1,304	22.7	30.3	4.6	7.4
Less than 3.1 percent	1,709	353	20.7	31.0	4.2	7.5
3.1 - 5.0 percent	2,802	626	22.3	29.7	5.1	8.0
5.1 percent or more	1,233	326	26.4	30.5	4.6	6.4
	BLACKS					
Size of labor force	874	309	35.4	31.6	10.8	10.5
500,000 or more	225	58	25.8	32.5	5.8	7.8
100,000-499,999	242	95	39.2	29.8	10.4	9.2
Less than 100,000	409	156	38.1	32.3	13.3	12.0
Index of demand for female labor	874	309	35.4	31.6	10.8	10.5
High	497	160	32.2	33.0	9.1	10.1
Low	377	149	39.5	29.7	12.8	10.6
1967 unemployment rate	874	309	35.4	31.6	10.8	10.5
Less than 3.1 percent	161	48	29.8	30.8	7.8	8.7
3.1 - 5.0 percent	417	136	32.6	30.9	8.1	8.5
5.1 percent or more	296	125	42.2	33.0	15.8	13.2

CHAPTER SIX*

EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS

In this chapter several aspects of the employment experience of women 14 to 24 years of age are examined in order to establish a base from which to measure changes that will occur over the life of the study. In addition to the establishment of base-line data, we are interested in employment patterns *per se*. Furthermore, several topics treated in this chapter as "outcomes" of decisions reached in the labor market will be used later in interpreting year-to-year change in other facets of the employment experiences of young women. For example, we shall be interested in observing whether respondents for whom child-care costs are high are more likely, *ceteris paribus*, to leave the labor force if they lose their jobs than women for whom arrangements are less costly.

The first section of this chapter considers occupational assignments at the time of the survey and relates these to such explanatory variables as marital and family status, educational attainment, and training. The following section deals with variation in hourly rates of pay. The third section looks at the nature and costs of child-care arrangements. Next, the strength of the respondents' attachment to their current employers is examined.

I OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF NONSTUDENTS[1]

Of the young white women 18 to 24 years of age, 70 percent are white-collar workers, while 14 percent are in blue-collar occupations (Table 6.1). An additional 13 percent are in nondomestic service positions, with 2 percent more in the domestic services. Less than 1 percent are engaged in farm work. The occupational distribution of the blacks differs noticeably from the pattern for whites, particularly with respect to service jobs, where 20 percent are nondomestic and 13 percent are domestic service workers. Accordingly, there are relatively fewer blacks than whites holding white-collar jobs. Of at least equal interest is the fact that among black young girls slightly over one-half as many are employed in blue-collar as in white-collar work, whereas the corresponding proportion for the whites is only one-fifth.

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* This chapter was written by Roger D. Roderick, Frederick A. Zeller, and Joseph M. Davis.

[1] Also included are those enrolled in school but usually working at least 35 hours per week.

Table 6.1 Major Occupation Group, by Age and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	WHITES			BLACKS		
	18-19	20-24	Total or average	18-19	20-24	Total or average
White-collar	68	70	70	50	41	43
Professional and technical	4	24	19	4	9	8
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	1	1	1	0	1	1
Clerical	59	41	46	44	31	34
Sales	4	4	4	2	0*	1
Blue-collar	15	14	14	20	23	22
Craftsmen and foremen	0*	2	1	0	1	1
Operatives	13	12	12	20	21	21
Nonfarm laborers	2	0*	1	0	0*	0*
Service	16	15	15	29	35	33
Domestic	4	1	2	14	13	13
Nondomestic	12	14	13	15	22	20
Farm	0*	1	0*	1	0*	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,081	3,256	4,337	133	440	573

* Percentage is 0.5 or less.

(a) Includes women enrolled in school who usually work 35 or more hours per week.

When the occupational distribution of these young women is compared with that of women 30 to 44 years of age employed as wage and salary workers, some interesting differences emerge.[2] Larger proportions of the younger group are employed in white-collar occupations, and the difference is most pronounced in the case of the blacks. Stating this another way, the intercolor difference in the proportion employed as white-collar workers is smaller in the case of the younger cohort than among those 30 to 44 years of age. It should be noted that this is exclusively the result of larger proportions of young blacks in clerical occupations; the proportion of that cohort employed in professional jobs is actually slightly smaller than the proportion of the older group of blacks.

Educational Attainment

In the case of the white young women there is little variation in median years of school completed among major occupation groups, except for the considerably higher-than-average attainment of those in the professional and technical category (Table 6.2). In the nonprofessional categories, the medians range from 12.3 years for blue-collar workers to 12.6 for clerical workers. It is above 16 years for the professionals. Among the blacks the variation is only slightly greater. The median for the professionals is 16 years and for the other categories containing sufficient sample cases for reliable measurement it ranges between 11.2 years (domestic servants) and 12.7 (clerical workers).

Table 6.2 Median Year of School Completed, by Major Occupation Group of Current Job and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School (a)

Current occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Median years (b)	Total number (thousands)	Median years (b)
White-collar	3,017	12.8	247	12.8
Professional and technical	803	16.+	46	16.0
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	60	(c)	4	(c)
Clerical	1,967	12.6	192	12.7
Sales	188	12.5	4	(c)
Blue-collar	613	12.3	125	12.4
Domestic service	87	(c)	76	11.2
Nondomestic service	561	12.4	116	12.0
Farm	23	(c)	4	(c)
Total or average	4,337	12.6	573	12.4

(a) Includes women enrolled in school who usually work 35 or more hours per week.
(b) Medians computed from grouped data.
(c) Median not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

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[2] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, Table 4.1, p. 104.

As is implied by the foregoing, there is very little difference in educational attainment between the young white and black women overall. Median years of schooling is 12.6 for the former and 12.4 for the latter. This evidences a secular narrowing of the intercolor education gap that was found in our earlier survey of women 30 to 44 years of age, where the figures were 12.4 and 11.6, respectively.[3] The remaining differential in favor of the whites is confined to those employed in the domestic and nondomestic service occupations, for black young women employed in clerical and blue-collar positions actually hold an edge over their white counterparts in terms of median years of school completed.

There is another interesting facet of the "intergenerational shift" in the relationship between educational attainment and occupational assignment of white and black women. In the professional and technical category, one-half of the young blacks under consideration here have completed at least four years of college, in contrast with over four-fifths of the black women 30 to 44 years of age. Among whites, the corresponding proportions for the two age groups are 56 percent and 57 percent. The fact that this figure is so much lower in the case of the younger black women than among their older counterparts suggests that black young women may now be finding it more possible than a decade or so ago to enter a variety of professional and technical occupations rather than being restricted almost entirely to teaching.[4]

Occupational Training and Skills

Typing and shorthand skills We turn now to the question whether the young women who studied typing and/or shorthand in high school have different occupational distributions from those who did not, holding constant number of years of school completed. Only for the group with 12 years of education is the number of sample cases large enough in both color groups to allow reasonably confident statements (Table 6.3). It is clear that in the case both of whites and blacks, having studied typing alone or in combination with shorthand substantially increases the probability of employment in white-collar occupations. Among the whites, for instance, fewer than half (47 percent) of the young women who had not taken typing or shorthand in high school were in white-collar jobs, in contrast to 66 percent of those who had taken typing alone, and 77 percent of those who had taken both typing and shorthand. Among the blacks, the corresponding proportions are 36 percent, 40 percent, and 56 percent.

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[3] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 106.

[4] However, sampling error cannot be ruled out as a possible explanation.

Table 6.3 Current Occupation, by Clerical Courses Completed in High School, and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School Who Have Completed High School[a]

(Percentage distribution)

Current occupation	No typing or shorthand	Typing only	Typing and shorthand	Total or average[b]
	WHITES			
White-collar	47	66	77	70
Professional, technical, managerial	0	11	5	7
Clerical and sales	47	55	72	63
Blue-collar	27	16	13	15
Domestic service	3	3	1	2
Nondomestic service	23	15	8	12
Farm	0	1	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	184	1,075	1,356	2,628
	BLACKS			
White-collar	36	40	56	44
Professional, technical, managerial	4	1	0	1
Clerical and sales	33	38	56	43
Blue-collar	20	30	26	28
Domestic service	13	13	3	9
Nondomestic service	30	18	15	19
Farm	0	0	0	0
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	64	118	113	301

Occupational training outside regular school Within occupational categories there are definite intercolor differences in the extent of training outside regular school, particularly when education is controlled at 12 years (Table 6.4). The most striking case concerns white-collar employment, where almost three-quarters of the blacks with this amount of education have had some sort of outside occupational training, compared to slightly less than half of the whites.[5] In the other direction, nearly twice as many whites as blacks in blue-collar work report some sort of occupational training.

Considering only interoccupational differences, it can be seen in Table 6.4 that proportionately more of the white-collar than of blue-collar workers in both color groups have had training outside regular school. Further, in the case of the whites, nondomestic service workers are more likely to have had training than even white-collar workers. Blacks, however, display a somewhat different pattern. We are not sure about the underlying reasons for these patterns; however, we are inclined to believe that the intercolor differences are at least in part related to such factors as curricular offerings in regular schools, the thrust of manpower training programs, and the greater attachment of black than white women to the labor force.

Of the young women who terminated their education with high school graduation, 11 percent of the whites and 4 percent of the blacks possess a professional or trade certificate (table not shown). Among those employed in white-collar occupations at the time of the survey, the proportions are 7 percent for the whites and 1 percent for the blacks. Similar intercolor differences exist in clerical and blue-collar occupations. In nondomestic services, however, the gap widens: 45 percent of the whites but only 18 percent of the blacks have such a certificate. More white women are apparently occupying such nondomestic service positions as practical nurse or hairdresser, which require certification. In fact, 54 percent of an estimated 257 thousand white women 18 to 24 years of age who are working full time and who have trade certificates are engaged in nondomestic services. As for those with professional certificates, it is worth noting that although the base numbers are relatively small, 94 percent of the white and 87 percent of the black women so certified are employed in white-collar occupations.

Marital and Family Status

Differences in occupational distribution by marital and family status are strongly related to the presence or absence of children at home (Table 6.5). Among employed young women 18 to 24 years of age, a much greater proportion of those without children are in white-collar occupations. Within the childless group, the married are more likely than the nonmarried

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[5] Moreover, 14 percent of the black high school graduates in white-collar jobs have had two or more training programs, compared to only 5 percent of the white.

Table 6.4 Extent of Occupational Training Received Outside Regular School, by Selected Highest Year of School Completed Categories, Type of Occupation, and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School(a)

Selected highest year of school completed category and type of occupation	Total number (thousands)	Percent with some training: 1 program only	Percent with some training: 2 or more programs	Percent with some training: 1 or more programs
	WHITES			
Total or average				
White-collar(b)	2,904	42	5	47
Professional, technical	774	42	5	47
Clerical	1,887	43	5	48
Sales	183	30	2	32
Blue-collar	613	26	2	28
Domestic service	78	(d)	(d)	(d)
Nondomestic service	537	45	10	55
Total or average(c)	4,187	39	6	45
12 years only				
White-collar	1,790	44	5	49
Clerical	1,471	42	5	47
All other	319	53	3	56
Blue-collar	391	29	3	32
Domestic service	53	(d)	(d)	(d)
Nondomestic service	316	51	10	61
Total or average(c)	2,593	42	6	48
	BLACKS			
Total or average				
White-collar(b)	233	47	17	64
Professional, technical	44	42	12	54
Clerical	182	50	19	69
Sales	4	(d)	(d)	(d)
Blue-collar	124	15	0	15
Domestic service	75	26	0	26
Nondomestic service	114	45	4	49
Total or average(c)	556	36	8	44
12 years only				
White-collar	126	58	14	72
Clerical	120	61	14	75
All other	7	(d)	(d)	(d)
Blue-collar	86	16	0	16
Domestic service	27	45	0	45
Nondomestic service	56	54	4	58
Total or average(c)	299	45	7	52

(a) Includes respondents enrolled in graduate school and who usually work 35 or more hours per week.
(b) Includes respondents in nonfarm managerial and proprietor occupations.
(c) Includes respondents in farm occupations.
(d) Percentage not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 6.5 Major Occupation Group, by Marital and Family Status and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	Married no children	Nonmarried, no children	Married, with children	Nonmarried with children	Total or average
			WHITES		
White-collar	74	77	49	46	70
Professional, technical	26	19	11	3	19
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	2	2	1	0	1
Clerical	44	52	30	36	46
Sales	2	4	7	7	4
Blue-collar	13	10	26	22	14
Domestic service	1	2	3	0	2
Nondomestic service	11	10	21	32	13
Farm	1	0*	1	0	0*
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,066	2,302	746	196	4,337
			BLACKS		
White-collar	48	51	38	27	44
Professional, technical	27	8	6	4	8
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0	2	0	0	1
Clerical	22	41	32	22	34
Sales	0	0*	1	1	1
Blue-collar	22	19	17	35	22
Domestic service	14	12	16	14	13
Nondomestic service	13	17	27	24	20
Farm	3	0*	1	0	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	49	263	159	91	573

* Percentage is 0.5 or less.

(a) Includes women enrolled in school who usually work 35 or more hours per week.

to occupy professional positions, while the nonmarried tend to be clerical workers. These latter relationships (attributable at least in part to age) hold for both whites and blacks, but are more pronounced in the case of the blacks. The occupational categories accounting for larger proportions of young mothers than of childless women include blue-collar and nondomestic service positions. These patterns are undoubtedly a reflection, to some extent, of intercorrelations (described in Chapter 2) between marital and family status, age, and educational attainment. Also, women with children are more likely than those without to take part-time jobs. It is undoubtedly true that early childbearing interrupts schooling and results in poorer job possibilities. In addition, the data suggest that the presence of a child restricts the hours women are willing to work as well as their willingness to accept certain kinds of work.

Size of Labor Force in Local Labor Market

The size of the labor force in the area in which a young woman lives shows a considerably stronger relationship to the structure of occupational assignments in the case of black women than in the case of white (Table 6.6). The proportion of blacks in clerical jobs is some three-and-one-half times higher in the largest than in the smallest local labor markets (61 versus 17 percent); and the proportion in domestic service in the smallest areas (22 percent) is in marked contrast to that in the largest (where it is less than 0.5 percent). We look forward to a thorough examination of this relationship at a later date, and suspect that it reflects regional variations in education and employment opportunities, including variation in the existence and location of job opportunities in state and federal governments.

Other Characteristics of Local Labor Market

We have found no clear pattern in the relationship between the degree of industrial diversification[6] and occupation. Similarly, in examining occupational assignments in relation to the level of unemployment in the area in 1967, we have found little of interest. Our data nevertheless do confirm one expectation. Although not shown in a table, the proportion of black women employed as white-collar workers in areas of high unemployment (greater than 5.0 percent) in 1967 is significantly lower than the proportions in low or moderate unemployment areas (less than 3.1 percent, and 3.1 to 5.0 percent, respectively). White respondents exhibit rather consistent patterns of assignment regardless of extent of unemployment in the local labor market.

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[6] For a brief description of the manner in which the degree of industrial diversification is calculated, see the Glossary, Appendix A.

Table 6.6 Major Occupation Group, by Size of Labor Force in Local Labor Market and Color: Employed Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Major occupation group	500,000 or more	100,000 to 499,999	Less than 100,000	Total or average
	WHITES			
White-collar	79	77	61	70
Professional, managerial	21	26	16	20
Clerical	54	44	42	46
Sales	4	7	3	4
Blue-collar	11	8	20	14
Domestic service	2	2	2	2
Nondomestic service	8	12	17	13
Farm	0	0*	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,120	1,283	1,933	4,337
	BLACKS			
White-collar	71	44	25	44
Professional, managerial	9	8	9	9
Clerical	61	34	17	34
Sales	1	2	0	1
Blue-collar	16	14	31	22
Domestic service	0*	14	22	13
Nondomestic service	13	28	20	20
Farm	0	0	1	1
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	157	169	248	573

* Percentage 0.5 or less.

(a) Includes women enrolled in school who usually work 35 or more hours per week.

II HOURLY RATE OF PAY[7]

The respondent's rate of pay in her current job is one indication of her success in the labor market. This section deals with the relationship between rate of pay and educational attainment and occupational assignment. Median hourly rates of pay show a moderate, positive association with educational attainment in nearly all occupational categories in which there are sufficient sample cases for comparison (Table 6.7). In the case of white young women, median rates of pay are surprisingly similar for white- and blue-collar workers, with wages in service occupations substantially lower. On the other hand, there are somewhat greater interoccupational pay rate differences among blacks, where the highest rate of pay went to white-collar workers, followed by blue-collar, nondomestic service, and domestic service workers, in that order.

Black-white pay differentials, however, do not follow a consistent pattern. For respondents with 12 years of education or less, blacks in white-collar occupations are earning slightly more than their white counterparts (Table 6.7). At levels of educational attainment beyond 12 years, this pattern is reversed: the intercolor differential in median rates of pay is wider and in favor of whites. White girls in blue-collar occupations with 12 or fewer years of education, on the other hand, earn more than their black counterparts. In the nondomestic services, for those with less than a high school education, the color differential is small and in the blacks' favor. With a high school education, however, the magnitude of this differential increases substantially and its direction is reversed, so that the advantage lies in favor of the whites.

The large intercolor wage differential in nondomestic service suggests that rather different types of work may be performed within the category by blacks and whites with corresponding amounts of education. It seems likely that such assignment discrepancies can be partially explained in terms of regional differences in job opportunities. The same may also hold for variations within other occupational categories. It is also possible that intercolor variations in rates of pay reflect underlying North-South wage differentials. Of course, this is not to deny the possible influence of other factors. For example, intercolor differences in occupational training outside regular school may help account for the slight black advantage in white-collar wages among respondents who have had 12 years or less of education.

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[7] Information in this section is limited to employed wage and salary workers because it is virtually impossible to ascertain to what extent the earnings of the self-employed are wages as opposed to other kinds of returns. In the case of most employed wage and salary workers who reported rates of pay in terms of a time unit other than an hour, hourly rates were computed by first converting the reported figure into a weekly rate and then dividing by the number of hours usually worked per week on current job. Accurate computations for those who reported a daily rate, however, were impossible; hence hourly wage rates for these people are treated as not ascertained.

III CHILD-CARE ARRANGEMENTS: NATURE AND COSTS

We turn now to the nature and costs of child-care arrangements. Here, we consider the full age range (14 to 24) rather than restricting our analysis to the 18 to 24 year olds as in the two preceding sections of the chapter. Employed women with children of their own in the household were asked: "Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your child(ren) while you are working?" Those answering "yes" were then asked: "What arrangements have you made?" Answers were classified as follows: child is cared for in own home by relative; in own home by nonrelative; in relative's home; in nonrelative's home; at school or group-care center (day-care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, settlement house, etc.). Respondents who found it necessary to make regular child-care arrangements were asked to indicate the cost of such arrangements.

Presumably, the type of child-care services used by parents depends upon several factors. On the one hand, there are "demand" variables such as the number and ages of children, knowledge of alternative arrangements, preferences for certain kinds of child-care services, and family income. On the other hand, there are variables of a "supply" or opportunity character: the presence of other adults or older children in the home and their alternative employment opportunities; proximity to relatives and friends outside the home; and the existence of formal day-care centers, along with the services they offer and the prices they charge.

Among employed women 14 to 24 years of age who were not enrolled in school at the time of the survey, only 72 percent of the whites and 78 percent of the blacks who had children in the home replied that it was necessary to make regular arrangements for the care of their children. The reasons cited by the remainder as obviating the need for such arrangements are shown in Table 6.8. There is strong indication that response to this question was influenced by its emphasis on "regular arrangements." In any case, child-care arrangements undoubtedly are a significant factor affecting both the labor force experience of young women in this age cohort and the welfare of their children. Also, because many of their children are very young, it seems safe to suggest that a large fraction of the mothers might be forced to leave the labor force or to place some rather severe restrictions on their availability for employment if unable to secure satisfactory child-care arrangements.

Table 6.7 Median(a) Hourly Rates of Pay, by Highest Year of School Completed, Major Occupation Group, and Color: Women 18 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers and Not Enrolled in School(b)

Major occupation group	Less than 12 years	12 years	More than 12 years	Total or average
	WHITES			
White-collar(c)	$1.71	$1.92	$2.42	$2.05
Professional, technical	(e)	$1.98	$2.65	$2.56
Clerical	$1.89	$1.94	$2.08	$1.96
Sales	(e)	$1.65	(e)	$1.63
Blue-collar	$1.73	$1.94	(e)	$1.86
Domestic service	(e)	(e)	(e)	Less than $1.00
Nondomestic service	$1.25	$1.75	$1.91	$1.64
Total or average(d)	$1.62	$1.91	$2.37	$1.95
	BLACKS			
White-collar(c)	$1.89	$1.98	$2.22	$2.04
Professional, technical	(e)	(e)	$2.44	$2.33
Clerical	(e)	$1.99	$1.98	$2.00
Sales	(e)	(e)	(e)	(e)
Blue-collar	$1.69	$1.76	(e)	$1.74
Domestic service	Less than $1.00	Less than $1.00	(e)	Less than $1.00
Nondomestic service	$1.30	$1.45	(e)	$1.37
Total or average(d)	$1.39	$1.80	$2.09	$1.78

(a) Medians computed from grouped data.

(b) Includes women enrolled in school who usually work 35 or more hours per week.

(c) Includes nonfarm managers and proprietors, not shown separately.

(d) Includes farm workers, not shown separately.

(e) Medians not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 6.8 Reasons Child-Care Arrangements Are Not Necessary, by Color: Employed Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Not Enrolled in School with Children at Home Who Do Not Need Child-Care Arrangements(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Reason child care not necessary	WHITES	BLACKS
Care for themselves	2	0
Husband cares for them	15	18
Other relative cares	16	70
In school	5	7
Other	61	5
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	348	76

(a) Includes women enrolled in school who usually work 35 or more hours per week.

In the following paragraphs we consider child-care costs by type of arrangement, mother's occupation, hourly rate of pay, and hours worked in the survey week. Although some of these variables are intercorrelated, it is nevertheless worthwhile to examine each separately.

Type of Arrangements

There are inadequate sample cases to warrant a confident statement about the relative costs of various child-care arrangements used by young mothers employed at the time of the survey. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the pattern of child-care arrangements differs substantially between white and black mothers. Three-fifths of the black young women who report regular arrangements have their children cared for by a relative, while the same is true of less than half of the white (Table 6.9). Although not shown in the table, black women are also more inclined to use formal group-care arrangements than their white counterparts (10 versus 5 percent); and a disproportionately large number of whites use the services of a nonrelative.

In general, intercolor differences in types and costs of services used are probably related, at least in part, to differences in income. There are probably other reasons as well. Greater dependence upon other family members for child-care services may reflect a tighter intergenerational family structure among black women than among white; or it may be associated with relatives living together in the same dwelling or close enough to perform such services readily.

Table 6.9 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangements, by Type of Arrangement Used and Color: Employed Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Who Use Child-Care Arrangements(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Daily cost of child care	Own home by relative	Home of relative	Home of nonrelative	Total or average(c)
	WHITES			
No cost	45	24	0	16
Less than $1.00	4	3	2	4
1.00 to 1.99	0	11	8	7
2.00 to 2.99	28	31	30	27
3.00 to 4.99	23	26	50	38
5.00 or more	0	6	11	9
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	105	170	254	717
Median cost(b)	$2.04	$2.38	$3.40	$2.85
	BLACKS			
No cost	60	28	3	26
Less than $1.00	0	2	2	2
1.00 to 1.99	22	22	36	26
2.00 to 2.99	10	31	26	23
3.00 to 4.99	8	17	30	21
5.00 or more	0	0	3	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	49	65	43	207
Median cost(b)	No cost	$1.90	$2.35	$1.84

(a) Excludes employed women enrolled in school who usually work less than 35 hours per week.

(b) Medians computed from grouped data.

(c) Includes care by relative in child's home and by school or group-care center, not shown separately.

In part because black women use less expensive forms of child care more often than their white counterparts, costs per day differ considerably between the two color groups. On the average, whites report paying $1.00 more per day than blacks; for those who use regular child-care arrangements, the former report average daily costs of $2.85 compared to $1.84 for the latter (Table 6.9).[8] At this time, we are unable to separate the extent to which costs reflect different prices for identical services from the extent to which they reflect qualitative or quantitative variations in services rendered. Both are almost certainly involved.

Occupation

It is clear that in each of the major occupational categories, white young women have higher daily child-care expenses than do black (Table 6.10). For black young women, those employed in white-collar occupations pay far more for child care than do those in domestic service positions--a median of $2.47 versus one of $1.43. Costs incurred by blue-collar employees and by nondomestic service employees are approximately the same and are at a level much closer to that for domestic workers than that for white-collar workers. Among whites, the relationship between occupation and child-care costs is substantially different. Daily expenses for the blue-collar group are somewhat above those encountered by women in white-collar positions. Nondomestic service workers pay the least, although their costs are only slightly less than those for women in the other groups. One of the reasons for the intercolor variation in child-care costs by occupation is evident in Table 6.11, which shows the types of arrangements made by those in each occupational category.

Rate of Pay

The daily cost of child care for working mothers is directly related to their hourly rates of pay (Table 6.12). This relationship holds for both blacks and whites, although as with occupation whites pay more than blacks in each category. This relationship is similar to the one found for our sample of older women.[9] As noted above, the intercolor difference appears to be at least partly due to differences in type of service used by occupational category.

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[8] For several reasons, these cost figures are higher than those reported a year earlier by employed women 30 to 44 years of age. At that time, older white women paid $2.75 while older black women averaged $0.99 per day; Shea, *et al.*, *Dual Careers*, Vol. I, p. 123.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 127.

Table 6.10 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangements, by Type of Occupation and Color: Employed Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Who Use Child-Care Arrangements(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Cost of arrangements	White-collar	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Total or average(b)
			WHITES		
No cost	14	18	(d)	19	16
Less than $1.00	6	2	(d)	0	4
$1.00-1.99	5	8	(d)	11	7
$2.00-2.99	28	23	(d)	32	27
$3.00-4.99	31	48	(d)	38	38
$5.00 or more	16	0*	(d)	0	9
Total percent	100	100	(d)	100	100
Total number (thousands)	375	201	5	125	717
Median cost (c)	$2.86	$2.96	(d)	$2.62	$2.85
			BLACKS		
No cost	18	39	35	20	26
Less than $1.00	2	0	3	2	2
$1.00-1.99	16	18	28	42	26
$2.00-2.99	30	16	10	30	23
$3.00-4.99	29	27	24	5	21
$5.00 or more	6	0	0	0	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	67	47	30	62	207
Median cost(c)	$2.47	$1.61	$1.43	$1.67	$1.85

* Percentage is 0.5 or less.

(a) Excludes employed women enrolled in school who usually work less than 35 hours per week.

(b) Whites include domestic service and farm workers not shown separately. Blacks include farm workers not shown separately.

(c) Medians computed from grouped data.

(d) Percentages and median not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 6.11 Type of Child-Care Arrangements, by Type of Occupation and Color: Employed Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Who Use Child-Care Arrangements(a)

(Percentage distribution)

Type of arrangement	White-collar	Blue-collar	Domestic service	Nondomestic service	Total or average(b)
	WHITES				
Own home by relative	16	13	(c)	30	18
Own home by nonrelative	9	2	(c)	11	7
Relative's home	21	40	(c)	28	28
Nonrelative's home	50	36	(c)	31	42
School or group care center	4	9	(c)	0	5
Total percent	100	100	(c)	100	100
Total number (thousands)	375	201	5	125	717
	BLACKS				
Own home by relative	15	37	22	33	26
Own home by nonrelative	12	6	0	7	7
Relative's home	29	25	59	34	34
Nonrelative's home	29	16	16	23	23
School or group care center	15	16	4	2	10
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	67	47	30	62	207

(a) Excludes employed women enrolled in school who usually work less than 35 hours per week.

(b) Includes domestic service and farm workers not shown separately for whites, and farm workers not shown separately for blacks.

(c) Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 6.12 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangements, by Hourly Rate of Pay on Current Job and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Use Child-Care Arrangements[a]

(Percentage distribution)

Daily cost of child care	Less than $1.50	$1.50-1.99	$2.00 or more	Total or average
		WHITES		
No cost	18	12	14	16
Less than $1.00	7	2	5	4
1.00-1.99	7	12	2	7
2.00-2.99	51	26	19	27
3.00-4.99	18	41	48	37
5.00 or more	0	7	12	9
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	162	245	235	705
Median cost[b]	$2.35	$2.92	$3.42	$2.85
		BLACKS		
No cost	17	33	20	26
Less than $1.00	6	0	0	2
1.00-1.99	54	16	15	26
2.00-2.99	24	27	14	23
3.00-4.99	0	22	45	21
5.00 or more	0	2	5	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	63	71	45	207
Median cost[b]	$1.50	$2.04	$3.04	$1.84

(a) Excludes employed women enrolled in school who usually work less than 35 hours per week.

(b) Medians computed from grouped data.

Hours Worked in Survey Week

We expected the daily cost of child care to be directly related to the number of hours worked. Comparing respondents who worked 35 or more hours in the survey week with those who worked fewer than 35 hours, this expected relationship is confirmed, although the differences are rather small (Table 6.13). Within each color group, women who work more hours have higher median daily costs of child care.

Table 6.13 Daily Cost of Child-Care Arrangements, by Hours Worked in Survey Week and Color: Employed Women Who Use Child-Care Arrangements and Were at Work in the Survey Week[a]

(Percentage distribution)

Daily cost of child care	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Less than 35 hours	35 hours or more	Total or average	Less than 35 hours	35 hours or more	Total or average
No cost	24	12	16	36	18	24
Less than $1.00	9	2	4	2	2	2
1.00 - 1.99	8	6	7	20	31	27
2.00 - 2.99	19	32	28	12	29	23
3.00 - 4.99	27	40	37	27	19	22
5.00 or more	13	7	9	2	2	2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	241	430	671	77	118	195
Median cost	$2.47	$2.93	$2.82	$1.60	$1.96	$1.88

(a) Excludes women enrolled in school who usually work less than 35 hours per week.

IV JOB ATTACHMENT

Many of the young women in our survey are just beginning their labor force careers, which may be interrupted or terminated later by such things as continued education, marriage, childbearing, and full-time homemaking. Among the married young women, some may be required to work in order to meet basic financial needs. Others may choose to work in order to accumulate sufficient funds for a down payment on a house, to acquire household furnishings and appliances, to obtain a (newer) car, to take a vacation, or to meet a temporary need. (Examples of the latter include medical bills and, particularly for whites, putting a husband through college). Still other women work to achieve some measure of economic, social, and psychological independence. Whatever the source of motivation, we are interested in how the labor market operates for these young women. We wish to know, for example, which of their characteristics are associated with a tendency to make job shifts of various kinds or to remain with one employer, in one occupation, in one locality.

We intend to examine the data from future surveys for patterns of change and stability in employment. We are interested in learning whether any of these patterns are more likely than others to be associated with successful accommodation to the labor market, as measured by improvement in such factors as occupational assignment, rate of pay, and avoidance of unemployment. For example, we hope to be able to say something about the explanatory power of factors which have been offered to explain sex-related discrimination in pay and promotion.

As a foundation for this longitudinal analysis of mobility, the present section of this chapter explores the interfirm mobility propensities of wage and salary workers who were not enrolled in school at the time of the survey. Our goal is to identify the correlates of a high degree of attachment to current employer in the face of hypothetically posed and ostensibly more rewarding job opportunities in the same geographic area. In subsequent reports the predictive power of our job attachment measure will be checked, and the ways in which propensities to move interact with characteristics of the labor market environment to produce actual job movement will be explored.

Conceptual Framework

The concept of job attachment used here, and the general theoretical framework within which it is analyzed, have been described at length in a previous report.[10] Although we believe the overall conceptual framework is serviceable, we have sought to adapt it to the case of women, as indicated below. Briefly, we mean by job attachment the converse of the economist's definition of interfirm mobility, i.e., the propensity of an employed individual to remain with his present employer despite the perception of more rewarding opportunities elsewhere. Our measure of this propensity is based on the response to a hypothetical job offer: "Suppose someone in this area offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?" An additional question was asked of nonmarried women, who presumably are subject to slightly different constraints on their job-seeking behavior: "What if this job were in some other part of the country. What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?" Responses were open-ended and were later coded in relation to each respondent's current wage rate. Thus, women are classified according to the percentage increase in wage rate which they say would be necessary to induce them to make an interfirm shift in the labor market area where they reside.

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[10] Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, pp. 147-53.

We conceive an individual's attachment to his present job (in the sense indicated above) to be a function of the interaction between his own characteristics, those of the job, and the characteristics of the labor market.[11] For example, the structure of economic and noneconomic rewards in a job relative to the individual's value hierarchy will influence the way in which he reacts to an offer of another job. But the evaluation made by a worker is substantially affected by the character of the labor market. Since there is usually no assurance that a particular job will be permanent, his willingness to give up the one he has is bound to be influenced by his estimate of the availability of other opportunities.

The individual's propensity to move is not, of course, the same thing as the objective probability of his leaving his current employer. The former is a purely attitudinal variable, while the latter is a function not only of the worker's attitudes and labor force attachment, but of the actual opportunities for interfirm movement. These, in turn, depend upon such factors as: (1) the volume and character of job openings; (2) employers' hiring preferences, discharge and lay-off practices; (3) the personal characteristics of the worker that determine the extent of his knowledge of alternative opportunities, his initiative and vigor in seeking them out, and his attractiveness to other employers. In other words, no matter how high a worker's propensity to move to another job (i.e., no matter how low his attachment to his current job), the probability of actual movement is not necessarily great unless there are other jobs that he knows about and prefers, and unless he is acceptable to other employers having such jobs available.

Correlates of Job Attachment: Hypothetical Offer of Job in Same Area

In this section, as in the last, the age range under analysis is 14 to 24 years. At one extreme, 32 percent of employed whites and 39 percent of the employed blacks of that age group express willingness to change employers within the local area for a wage differential of less than 10 percent above what they are currently earning (Table 6.14). In fact, about half of these reportedly would change jobs for a wage equal to or lower than their current one. At the other extreme, one-fourth of the whites and 14 percent of the blacks say they would not change their jobs for any conceivable wage rate increase. In this regard, our sample of young women contains a larger proportion of individuals who are weakly attached (would change jobs for less than a 10 percent increase) and a smaller proportion of those who are strongly attached (would not move for any conceivable increase) than our sample of older women.[12] The relationship is reversed, however, when our sample of young males is used as the basis of comparison: relatively fewer young women than young men are weakly attached, and relatively more young women are strongly attached.[13]

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[11] In the case of women, in addition to the illustrative variables in these three categories discussed in our earlier report on men 45 to 59 years of age, we would add (1) number and ages of children; (2) child-care arrangements; (3) whether a job is full time or part time; (4) transportation arrangements, and similar variables particularly important to working women.

Table 6.14 Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer in Local Area, by Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age, Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Reaction to hypothetical job offer	WHITES	BLACKS
Yes, for same or lower wage	18	17
Yes, for increase of less than 10 percent	14	22
Yes, for increase of 10-50 percent	37	39
Yes, for increase of more than 50 percent	6	7
No	25	14
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	4,198	585

We do not propose to interpret these responses literally. It is not necessary to debate, for example, whether the women who say they would not move to another employer for any conceivable wage increase really mean that, or whether their responses simply reveal limited imaginations. Our only assumption is that individuals who say that they would move to another employer for a small (or no) wage increase are less strongly attached to their current jobs than those who would require a larger increase. The highest degree of attachment is attributed to those who say they would not take another job at any wage. In the analysis that follows, we measure the relative attachment of any given group of workers by the proportion of these very highly attached individuals that it contains.

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[12] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 201.

[13] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 151.

Occupation Both white and black young women in service occupations are more likely to be highly attached to their jobs than are those in white- and blue-collar occupations (Table 6.15). Moreover, an intercolor difference exists in all of the occupational categories, with the blacks being less highly attached than whites in each category. In addition, as was also true of black women 30 to 44 years of age,[14] domestic service workers have above-average attachment compared with other black workers. While this might at first appear inconsistent with the low wages and low social status generally accorded domestic service occupations, it is likely that the characteristics of domestic service workers (low educational attainment, poor health, etc.) frequently lock them in these occupations, thus overriding wage and status considerations and causing them to be highly attached to their jobs. There is also relatively high attachment within the nondomestic service occupations.

Table 6.15 Proportion Highly Attached to Current Job as Measured by Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer in Local Area, by Occupation and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

Occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
White-collar	2,857	22	243	13
Professional, managerial	766	26	48	9
Clerical, sales	2,091	20	196	14
Blue-collar(a)	640	22	131	10
Operatives	557	24	123	9
Domestic service	91	(c)	78	27
Nondomestic service	550	42	120	18
Total or average(b)	4,198	25	585	14

(a) Includes respondents employed as craftsmen and nonfarm laborers not shown separately.
(b) Includes respondents employed in farm occupations not shown separately.
(c) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

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[14] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, p. 204.

Length of service There is considerable evidence that, for the labor force as a whole, the probability of a voluntary job change declines substantially as length of service increases. This is so, in part, because of the financial, security, and status benefits that accrue with increasing length of service. Moreover, social and psychological bonds are likely to become stronger with the passage of time. Among the young women under consideration here, however, this relationship does not appear consistently or strongly, perhaps because of the limited duration of potential labor force activity of the total group (Table 6.16).

Table 6.16 Proportion Highly Attached to Current Job as Measured by Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer in Local Area, by Length of Service on Current Job and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

Length of service in current job	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
Less than 1 year	2,458	26	385	13
1 year, but less than 3	864	20	132	16
3 years or more	829	25	62	17
Total or average	4,198	25	585	14

Occupational change The nature of occupational change among the young women was measured by comparing the Duncan socioeconomic index value of their occupations in the first job they held after leaving school with that of their occupations at the time of the survey.[15] The data presented in Table 6.17 suggest that for both blacks and whites, those who experienced the most upward movement were least likely to be strongly attached to their current jobs. This may be in part a function of the fact that previous movement has been a gratifying experience to them, such that they look forward to future changes. Those who have experienced downward movement may well wish to retain their current position because previous changes hold unfavorable memories and suggestions of future movement may create images of more of the same. The percentages of highly attached for those who experienced a decline of 5 or more points on the Duncan index, however, were not significantly different from those whose index point value remained within plus or minus 4 points of their first jobs.

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[15] Appendix D contains an analysis of the degree of association in the Duncan index between scores for men and for women.

Table 6.17 Proportion Highly Attached to Current Job as Measured by Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer in Local Area, by Comparison of First Job with Current Job and Color: Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

First job compared to current job (Duncan Index)	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
First job 5 or more points higher	477	34	77	19
First = current job ± 4 points	2,656	24	333	14
First job 5 or more points lower	886	22	130	12
Total or average	4,198	25	585	14

Degree of satisfaction It was expected that the young women who said they like their jobs very much would be more likely to be strongly attached to them than those reporting lesser degrees of satisfaction. However, no consistent relationship between degree of satisfaction and attachment among the young women was found (table not shown). This is somewhat surprising since a fairly strong relationship between the two variables was found among 45 to 59 year old men, 30 to 44 year old women, and 14 to 24 year old male youth.[16] That it apparently does not exist among the young women may reflect the possibility that at this point in their lives they may not be career-oriented and, thus, occupational satisfaction as indicated by the measure we are using here may be relatively unimportant to them.

Correlates of Job Attachment: Hypothetical Offer of Job in Different Area

Only nonmarried respondents were asked about a hypothetical job in another geographical area. Regardless of the fact that most of these women have few family obligations, half of the whites and 46 percent of the blacks said that they would not take a job in another labor market area for any wage increase (Table 6.18). At the other extreme, 14 percent of the whites and only 7 percent of the blacks said that they would move to another area for a job which offered the same or a lower wage or for less than a 10 percent increase. In this regard, our sample of young women contains a smaller proportion of weakly attached and a larger proportion of strongly attached individuals than our sample of young men.[17]

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[16] Parnes, et al., The Pre-Retirement Years, Vol. I, pp. 158-59; Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, pp. 205-07; Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 155-56.

[17] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 158.

Table 6.18 Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer Outside Local Area, by Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

(Percentage distribution)

Reaction to hypothetical job offer	WHITES	BLACKS
Yes, for same or lower wage	10	2
Yes, for increase of less than 10 percent	4	5
Yes, for increase of 10-50 percent	20	27
Yes, for increase of more than 50 percent	16	19
No	50	46
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,431	381

Occupation When confronted by a hypothetical offer of an alternative job in some other area, the young white women in blue-collar occupations, particularly the operatives, exhibit high attachment in greater proportions (59 percent) than do those in the white-collar (49 percent) or nondomestic service (41 percent) occupations (Table 6.19). The relationship between occupation and attachment is the opposite among the blacks, where young women in nondomestic service occupations show highest attachment to their present employers (68 percent) followed by white- and blue-collar workers (41 and 37 percent, respectively). This reflects, at least in part, the fact that the breadth of occupational categories masks significant occupational differences. It may also mean that there is intercolor variation in training specific to the jobs held at the time of the survey, or that regional variation is important.

Length of service The anticipated positive relationship between length of service and degree of attachment to current job is found where attachment is measured on the basis of reaction to a comparable job in another area (Table 6.20). Among the whites, 48 percent of those with less than one year of service are highly attached, compared to 65 percent of those with three years or more of service. A similar pattern is evident among blacks. Overall, nonmarried women show a stronger attachment to their current jobs when the hypothesized offer involves geographical change than when it does not. The fact that we get a pronounced relation with length of service here but not with the hypothetical job change within an area suggests the possibility that the relationship in the latter case is masked by intercorrelations among marital status, length of service, and attachment.

Table 6.19 Proportion Highly Attached to Current Job as Measured by Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer Outside Local Area, by Occupation and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

Occupation	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
White-collar	1,744	49	162	41
Professional, managerial	422	46	27	30
Clerical, sales	1,322	51	133	43
Blue-collar (a)	299	59	92	37
Operatives	259	65	85	39
Domestic service	60	(c)	48	62
Nondomestic service	287	41	72	68
Total or average (b)	2,431	50	381	46

(a) Includes respondents employed as craftsmen and nonfarm laborers not shown separately.

(b) Includes respondents employed in farm occupations not shown separately.

(c) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 6.20 Proportion Highly Attached to Current Job, as Measured by Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer Outside Local Area, by Length of Service and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

Length of service in current job	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
Less than 1 year	1,474	48	257	44
1-3 years	558	49	91	50
3 years or more	374	65	28	50
Total or average	2,431	50	381	46

Degree of satisfaction   Although not shown, there is only a tenuous relationship between attitude toward current job and attachment to that job as measured by reaction to an offer in another geographical area. Fifty-three percent of the white women who like their jobs very much are highly attached compared to 48 percent of those who dislike their jobs to some degree; but only 45 percent of those who like their jobs fairly well are highly attached. Among the black young women, the relationship is even less clear.

Occupational change   Responses of white women to hypothetical inter-area job offers show no clear relationship to a Duncan index comparison of first job relative to current job, possibly because the necessity for geographical relocation blurs distinctions that might otherwise occur (Table 6.21). Essentially, the same thing is true for the black respondents.

Table 6.21   Proportion Highly Attached to Current Job as Measured by Reaction to Hypothetical Job Offer Outside Local Area, by Comparison of First and Current Jobs and Color: Nonmarried Women 14 to 24 Years of Age Employed as Wage and Salary Workers Who Are Not Enrolled in School

Comparison of first and current jobs (Duncan Index)	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached	Total number (thousands)	Percent highly attached
First job 5 or more points higher	202	32	41	57
First = current job ± 4 points	1,662	56	227	43
First job 5 or more points lower	482	36	88	46
Total or average	2,431	50	381	46

V SUMMARY

The initial section of this chapter is restricted to nonstudents 18 to 24 years of age, plus those who are enrolled in school but who usually work at least 35 hours per week. The distribution of these young women by type of occupation shows the same rank ordering for whites as for blacks: the largest numbers are white-collar workers, followed by blue-collar, nondomestic service, domestic service, and farm workers. There is substantial intercolor variation, however, with the whites concentrated much more heavily in the white-collar category and much less so in domestic services. Professional and technical workers, both black and white, are the most highly educated, while black domestic service workers and white blue-collar workers have the least education. Two particularly interesting and significant points with respect to educational attainment in general are worth noting: first, there is virtually no intercolor difference in median years of educational attainment; and second, the median for both color groups is somewhat greater than 12 years.

Young women with 12 years of education are more likely than others to have taken both typing and shorthand in high school. Those who have had either typing alone or both typing and shorthand are much more likely than those who have not to be employed in white-collar jobs. Occupational training outside regular school is positively related to the amount of formal schooling completed up to and including completion of high school. Overall, approximately the same proportion of young women in each color group report such training--two in five. However, there are intercolor differences in the extent of training within occupational categories. A larger proportion of blacks than whites employed in clerical positions have had training, while the opposite is true among women employed in nondomestic service jobs.

A young woman's occupational assignment is strongly related to the presence or absence of children in the home. Marital and family status, of course, is intercorrelated with age and educational attainment. Generally, young women without children, especially those who are not currently married, are more likely to hold white-collar positions than women with children. This is especially true of the blacks. The size of an area's labor force is very strongly associated with the occupational assignments of the black girls. Specifically, compared to those living in large labor market areas, a very small proportion of blacks in smaller areas work in white-collar jobs. Regional differences in educational attainment and employment opportunities may underlie this pattern.

As anticipated, young women employed in professional and technical occupations earn more per hour than women in every other occupational category. Clerical and blue-collar workers follow, while those in service positions earn the least. Intercolor differences in pay within occupational groups are not consistent throughout the range of occupations. Part of the variation reflects differences in educational attainment. Other factors, such as the following, are also probably at work: region, particular duties performed within the same occupational category, and variation in outside training experiences.

Child-care costs incurred by working mothers are higher for whites than for blacks within every occupational category. This is largely because whites use inherently more expensive child-care arrangements, viz., the child is more frequently cared for by nonrelatives. Looking at major occupational groups, young blacks in white-collar jobs pay the most for child care, while those in domestic service work pay the least; among whites, blue-collar and nondomestic service workers pay the most and least, respectively. As anticipated, the costs of child-care are positively associated with hourly rate of pay. Whites pay more than blacks within each pay category, again because of differences in types of arrangements typically used. Similarly, child-care costs are positively associated with the number of hours worked per week; the black-white differential in costs prevails among both part-time and full-time workers.

When women employed in wage or salary jobs are asked what wage would be required to induce them to accept a comparable job with a different employer in the local area one-fourth of the whites and 14 percent of the blacks say they would not change jobs at any conceivable wage rate. On the other hand, 32 percent of the whites and 39 percent of the blacks report that they would change for pay increases of less than 10 percent or for no increase at all. Blacks show less attachment to their current jobs than whites in every occupational category and both whites and blacks manifest greater attachment in service occupations than in white- or blue-collar jobs. Unexpectedly, there is no positive correlation between job satisfaction and job attachment.

Some differences from the above pattern are found when the question concerns a hypothetical job offer that would involve geographical relocation--a question that was put only to the nonmarried women. To begin with, approximately one-half of each color group would not consider changing jobs at all. However, blacks were only half as likely as whites (14 versus 7 percent) to indicate a willingness to change jobs for a wage rate less than 10 percent higher than their current one. Among white women, those in blue-collar jobs display the greatest attachment, while in the case of black, those in nondomestic service work are most highly attached. The expected positive relationship appears to hold between degree of attachment and length of service. No clear relationship, however, can be discerned between degree of attachment, on the one hand, and job satisfaction or past upward occupational movement on the other. We suspect that marriage and educational plans frequently dominate the mobility decision of young women.

CHAPTER SEVEN*

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

An important objective of our longitudinal study of young women is to gain a better understanding of the process of occupational choice, where being a full-time housewife is viewed as one of several options. Related to this objective is a second: to increase our knowledge of the various factors that influence educational attainment. Educational aspirations, the subject of this chapter, are related to both of the above phenomena in complex ways. Moreover, aspirations often condition (and are conditioned by) labor market experiences while youngsters are enrolled in school, as well as later in life. We are not suggesting that women are unable to combine the roles of wife, mother, and member of the labor force. Many do. Nor are we saying that women stay in school only because they perceive potentially satisfying career possibilities outside the home. Many search for marriage partners, or enroll for other reasons. We prefer to approach the topic of educational aspirations--their causes, correlates, and consequences--within a very broad analytic framework which presumes that choices regarding marriage, schooling, child-bearing, and work are part of a highly complex decision-making process, the results of which unfold over a lifetime.

Much of this process actually can be observed by means of this five-year longitudinal study of the age group under consideration. Generally speaking, youngsters at the lowest end of our age cohort are just beginning their high school careers; but at the end of the five-year period they will be either in the labor market, in college, or spending most of their time at home. For the most part, those in their late teens as our study opens have already started to work, are in college, or are rearing children at home. In any case, by the end of the study the vast majority of them will have married and will have worked for some period of time. Many women at the upper limit of the age cohort have left the labor force and are devoting nearly all of their time to family responsibilities. At the end of the period the eldest of our sample will be approaching 30 years of age, and a substantial fraction will have reentered the labor force. By following the educational and work careers of these several subsets of the total group over a five-year period, we should be able to observe almost the entire range of decisions that, collectively, constitute occupational (role) choice for young women reaching adulthood. Our purpose in this chapter is to set the stage for the longitudinal analysis by addressing ourselves to the following questions: (1) What educational aspirations are held by childless nonmarried[1] girls 14 to 17 years of age who are enrolled in elementary or high school, and how realistic do these aspirations seem to be? (2) What demographic, social, and educational factors appear to be related to variations in the educational goals of this group?[2] We begin by presenting a conceptual framework for interpreting the empirical relationships. This is followed by a description of the educational aspirations and expectations held by young women at the time of the survey. We then examine the relationships between educational goals and family background, school experiences, and other selected characteristics of the respondents. A brief summary concludes the chapter.

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* This chapter was written by Frederick A. Zeller and John R. Shea.

The educational aspirations of youngsters enrolled in school were ascertained by asking them: "How much more education would you like to get?" Answers have been categorized as follows: four years of high school or less; two years of college (completion of junior college or equivalent); four years of college (graduation from a four-year college); six years or more of college (obtaining a master's degree or equivalent, a Ph.D., or an advanced professional degree). In addition, respondents were asked, "As things now stand, how much more education do you think you will actually get?,"and their expectations have been coded in the same way.

I CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND PAST RESEARCH

Educational goals--their level and the factors which influence them--have been the subject of considerable research conducted by specialists interested in explaining how the social system distributes young people along the spectrum of economic opportunities. Nearly all students of the subject seek to account for individual variation in aspirational levels in terms of personality factors (e.g., general intelligence, conception of self) and environmental conditions (e.g., educational opportunities).[3] In addition to achievement motivation, intelligence, and other psychological variables, educational and occupational aspirations have been found to be related systematically to social class, parental encouragement, and area of residence.[4] Moreover, the influence of these variables on educational aspirations appears to be rather complex. For example, the separate "effect" of socioeconomic status is perhaps greater than that of intelligence for young women, but the opposite may be true for young men.[5] Boys from rural areas and smaller communities appear to have lower aspirations than those from larger population centers, controlling for socioeconomic status and intelligence.[6] Finally, there seem to be fairly considerable differences by race in the effect of several variables on educational aspirations.[7]

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[1] See Glossary, Appendix A, for a definition of marital status categories.

[2] Attention is confined to this group of students in the present report for both methodological and substantive reasons. Women in this category are sufficiently numerous and sufficiently homogeneous with respect to age and educational attainment to permit reliable analysis. Moreover, these youth are in the critical, formative stage of their career planning, when goals concerning occupation and family are beginning to crystallize and when crucial decisions about the nature and extent of additional education are being made.

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[3] See, for example, H. Borow, "Research in Vocational Development," Vocational Aspects of Counselor Education: A Conference Report (Washington, D.C.: George Washington University, 1965); and John Hayes, "Occupational Choice and the Perception of Occupational Roles," Occupational Psychology (January 1969), pp. 15-22.

[4] William H. Sewell and Vimal P. Shah, "Socioeconomic Status, Intelligence, and the Attainment of Higher Education," Sociology of Education (Winter 1967), pp. 1-23; William H. Sewell and Vimal P. Shah, "Social Class, Parental Encouragement, and Educational Aspirations," The American Journal of Sociology (March 1968), pp. 559-61; and William H. Sewell and Alan M. Orenstein, "Community of Residence and Occupational Choice," The American Journal of Sociology (March 1965), pp. 551-63. Much of the material reported in these articles is from a sample of high school seniors in Wisconsin.

[5] Sewell and Shah, "Socioeconomic Status, Intelligence, and the Attainment of Higher Education," p. 1.

[6] Sewell and Orenstein, "Community of Residence and Occupational Choice," p. 551.

[7] For a review of some of the more interesting studies, see Jeffry Piker, Entry into the Labor Force (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Michigan, 1968), pp. 81-87.

Despite the importance of educational and occupational goals[8] and the volume of research on the subject already completed, not all important questions have yet been answered. For one thing, compared to boys, little attention has been paid to girls. Second, static comparisons have been more common than analyses of changes in aspirations over time.[9] Moreover, even with respect to the determinants of aspirational level at a moment of time, it has been suggested that attention be given to several additional variables: (1) the availability of economic resources; (2) the student's knowledge of opportunities for assistance in furthering his educational objectives; (3) the student's self-conception, particularly with respect to his chances for success in college; (4) the student's reference group and the value climate in which he lives; and, (5) opportunities available in the school and community.[10] Unfortunately, measures are not yet available to us for some of these variables. Results of the supplemental school survey undertaken after the first wave of interviews--including intelligence test scores for members of the sample and several measures of school characteristics--are not available in time for inclusion here. Moreover, the interview schedules used thus far have not included measures of "peer effects" and parental influence. We will probe for such effects through retrospective inquiry in a later survey.[11]

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[8] As Professor Haller has observed, "Taken by themselves, the zero-order correlations between males' adolescent level of educational and/or occupational aspiration and their early adult levels of educational and occupational attainment are not especially high, ranging from +.46 to +.69. However, such early levels of aspiration appear to be more highly correlated with their respective behaviors than other known variables." Archibald O. Haller, "On the Concept of Aspiration," Rural Sociology (December 1968), p. 486. The studies to which he refers are summarized by Haller and Irwin W. Miller, The Occupational Aspiration Scale: Theory, Structure and Correlates, Technical Bulletin 288 (East Lansing, Michigan: Agricultural Experiment Station, Michigan State University, 1963).

[9] Among the exceptions is the longitudinal study of tenth graders by Jerald G. Bachman and Associates, reported in Youth in Transition, Vol. I (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1967).

[10] Sewell and Shah, "Social Class, Parental Encouragement, and Educational Aspiration," p. 572.

II EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS: AN OVERVIEW

Of these nonmarried, childless young women 14 to 17 years of age enrolled in either elementary or high school, 70 percent of the whites and 71 percent of the blacks desire some post-secondary education (Table 7.1).[12] While average educational attainment has been rising over time--and undoubtedly will continue to rise--the educational aspirations held by young girls are unrealistically high. To illustrate, in 1967 only about 29 percent of women who were 20 to 24 years of age, and 26 percent of those 25 to 29 years of age, actually had completed one or more years of college.[13] Thus, in the years ahead it should be expected that, on the average, the educational aspirations of young women in the sample will decline.

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[11] Had questions concerning the perceived influence of parents been raised in earlier surveys, responses might have been suspect, since other persons were frequently present when the subject was interviewed. According to a special tabulation of interviewer checks at the end of the section of the questionnaire on future job plans of male youth in 1966, another person was present in approximately one-half the interviews with young men 14 to 17 years of age. However, in the judgment of the Census interviewers, the other person influenced the job plan response in only 3 percent of the cases.

[12] The corresponding proportions for the young men 14 to 17 years of age in 1966 were 74 percent for the whites and 66 percent for the blacks. Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 164. The intercolor difference among the males, and its virtual absence among the females, may reflect intercolor variation in social role and status of the sexes; see Jesse Bernard, Marriage and the Family Among Negroes (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1966).

[13] U.S. Department of Commerce, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 169, p. 8.

Table 7.1 Educational Aspirations, by Color: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in Elementary or High School (a)
(Percentage distribution)

Years of education desired	WHITES	BLACKS
Less than 12	0*	0*
12	30	29
14	22	17
16	41	43
More than 16	7	11
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	5,719	779

*Percentage is 0.5 or less.
(a) Includes only nonmarried women with no children.

That some of the young women realize that their aspirations may be somewhat unrealistic is evident when we compare their goals with the number of years of education they actually expect to get (Table 7.2). Among those who say they would like to have at least two years of college, 10 percent of the whites and 12 percent of the blacks indicate that they expect to receive only 12 years or less education. But, since the discrepancy between goals and expectations is reasonably small, it is likely that educational expectations, as well as aspirations, will be revised downward by many of the youths.[14]

It is noteworthy that there is no substantial difference between blacks and whites in regard to educational aspirations and expectations.[15] Inasmuch as blacks have had lower educational attainment than whites historically, one might expect the same pattern to be evident in the aspirations and expectations of youth. That this is not the case may be a consequence of several factors. First, a disproportionately large number of young black girls may view education as the single best pathway to success. Second, compared to white, black youngsters may persist in holding unrealistic educational goals. Third, blacks may perceive more equal opportunities than have prevailed in the past.[16]

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[14] While young men in school who wanted 12 or 14 years of education in 1966 often revised their educational aspirations upward between the first and second surveys, a substantial number whose goals were four or more years of college brought their aspirations down. Ignoring those who left school entirely, there was still a net downward change in goals between 1966 and 1967. See Frederick A. Zeller, John R. Shea, Andrew I. Kohen, Jack A. Meyer, Career Thresholds, Vol. II (Columbus: Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, 1970), pp. 64-71.

[15] This is in contrast to the noticeable intercolor difference found in the analysis of young men. See Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 164-69.

Table 7.2 Educational Expectations, by Color: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in Elementary or High School Who Say They Would Like Two or More Years of College[(a)]
(Percentage distribution)

Years of education expected	WHITES	BLACKS
12 or less	10	12
14	30	25
16	53	52
More than 16	6	11
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,997	557

(a) Includes only nonmarried women with no children.

III CORRELATES OF EDUCATIONAL GOALS

We turn now to an examination of a number of factors that appear to be related to the educational goals of young women of high school age.

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[16] The data are unequivocal on the matter of the relative ability of men in both color groups to realize educational goals. In the study of young men, of the estimated 740,000 white male seniors who in 1966 aspired to 16 or more years of education, 79 percent were enrolled in college in 1967, 18 percent had left school, and 3 percent remained as seniors. Among an estimated 83,000 black seniors of 1966 with the same high aspirations, 48 percent were in college a year later, 41 percent had left school and 10 percent remained high school seniors. Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, p. 64.

Family Background

It was anticipated that educational aspirations would be related to family background or socioeconomic status for a number of reasons. To a considerable extent, educational attainment is dependent upon the willingness and ability of the youths' families to provide psychological and economic support for their continued growth and development. The family, as the principal socialization agent of society strongly affects a youngster's perceptions of herself vis-a-vis the alternatives made available by society for her development. The following measures of family background and social status, many of which are obviously intercorrelated, have been examined: number of persons in the respondent's family who have completed 13 or more years of education; highest year of school completed by father, mother, and (if applicable) oldest sibling; total income of all family members in 1967; access to reading materials at age 14; occupation of father and mother when respondent was 14 years of age; whether parents are alive or dead; place of residence; and person with whom respondent lived when 14 years old. Nothing more will be said in this chapter about the latter two variables, because they are not related to educational aspirations in any consistent or understandable manner.[17]

The association between educational goals--measured in terms of the proportion of respondents who aspire to four or more years of college--and other family background variables is shown in Tables 7.3 and 7.4. At least among whites, the strongest relationship is between educational aspirations and the number of family members with more than 12 years of education (Table 7.3). Of the white youth with three or more family members in this category, 90 percent aspired to four or more years of college compared to only 38 percent of those in families in which no one had that much education. There are insufficient sample cases to permit a comparison for black girls. Although undoubtedly intercorrelated, the aspirations of young women are strongly related to the number of years of school completed by their fathers, mothers, and (where applicable) oldest siblings. Only 36 percent of the white girls whose fathers have less than 12 years of education aspire to four or more years of college, compared to 78 percent of those whose fathers have more than 12 years; with respect to mother's educational attainment the corresponding

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[17] Other research has found that community of residence is less strongly related to the educational aspirations of young women than young men. See William H. Sewell, "Community of Residence and College Plans," American Sociological Review (February 1964), pp. 24-38. However, before we can be confident that community and family structure are not related to aspirations we must be able to control statistically for additional variables such as intelligence.

Table 7.3 Proportion Aspiring to 16 or More Years of Education, by Highest Year of School Completed by Other Family Members and Color: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in Elementary or High School(a)

Educational attainment of other family members	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 years or more	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 years or more
Number of other family members with more than 12 years of education				
3 or more	252	90	9	(f)
None	2,984	38	498	49
Total or average(b)	5,719	48	779	54
Highest year of school completed by father(c)				
More than 12 years	1,063	78	16	(f)
Less than 12 years	1,507	36	267	61
Total or average(b)	4,446	51	457	57
Highest year of school completed by mother(d)				
More than 12 years	1,153	68	35	81
Less than 12 years	1,843	28	487	49
Total or average(b)	5,568	48	722	54
Highest year of school completed by oldest sibling(e)				
More than 12 years	1,045	64	79	74
Less than 12 years	1,177	37	242	41
Total or average(b)	3,866	46	581	53

(a) Includes only nonmarried women with no children.
(b) Includes other categories not specified.
(c) Excludes those whose fathers are deceased and those not living with their fathers either at time of survey or at age 14.
(d) Excludes those whose mothers are deceased and those not living with their mothers either at time of survey or at age 14.
(e) Includes only respondents with an older brother or sister.
(f) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

percentages are 28 and 68 percent. In neither case are cell sizes large enough to permit a reliable estimate of the relationship for blacks. With respect to the educational attainment of oldest sibling, roughly comparable percentages of those youngsters in the two color groups whose oldest brother or sister went to college intend to go--64 percent of the whites and 74 percent of the blacks.

As expected, the educational aspirations of high school girls are closely related to total family income and to mothers' and fathers' occupations when the respondent was 14 years of age (Table 7.4). Among white youngsters, only 39 percent of those in families with less than $3,000 of annual income aspire to four or more years of college, compared to 58 percent of those whose families had incomes of $10,000 or more. The corresponding percentages of blacks are 47 and 72 percent. Young women whose fathers and mothers were white-collar workers when the respondents were age 14 are more likely to want 16 or more years of education than those whose fathers were blue-collar workers or whose mothers either were blue-collar workers or did not work for pay. In this regard it is worth observing that the father's occupation seems to bear a stronger relationship to his daughter's educational goals than does the mother's occupation.

One additional indicator of socioeconomic status is shown in Table 7.4: exposure to reading materials at age 14. Whites who did not have access to two or three of the items (magazines, newspapers, and library cards) are far less likely to aspire to four or more years of college than those who had all three (26 versus 58 percent). The same relationship, however, does not hold for blacks. Evidently, this index of exposure to reading matter reflects reasonably well the forces which shape the educational plans of white young women, but not those of black women. We are unable at the present time to offer a good reason for this intercolor difference.

Finally, for white youth only, educational aspirations are related to whether both parents were alive at the time of the survey (Table 7.5). The white girl who reports that both her parents are alive is more likely to want four or more years of college than the girl whose father is dead (49 versus 31 percent). However, there is virtually no difference among the blacks in this regard--comparable proportions are 53 and 54 percent. It is possible that this difference by color reflects variation in the social roles of mothers and fathers in the black and white communities. There is a strong tendency for the father to determine the typical white family's social standing, and perhaps, therefore, the way in which offspring perceive themselves and their possibilities. In the father's absence, white youth may be less likely to perceive the opportunity for and the goal of relatively high educational attainment. It has been noted that in black families the mother's influence on children is likely to be relatively stronger.

Table 7.4 Proportion Aspiring to 16 or More Years of Education, by Selected Measures of Family Background and Color: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in Elementary or High School(a)

Selected measure of family background	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 years or more	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 years or more
Total family income, 1967(b)				
$10,000 or more	2,382	58	56	72
Less than $3,000	242	39	237	47
Total or average(c)	5,690	48	776	54
Exposure to reading materials at age 14				
Had library card, newspapers, magazines	3,802	58	205	50
Lacked any 1	1,388	30	230	59
Lacked 2 or 3	506	26	365	51
Total or average	5,719	48	779	54
Occupation of father (or head of household) when respondent was age 14				
White-collar	2,244	62	62	81
Blue-collar	2,436	39	398	53
Total or average(c)	5,719	48	779	54
Occupation of mother when respondent was age 14(d)				
White-collar	1,220	61	53	70
Blue-collar	409	42	38	61
Did not work for pay	3,171	48	271	52
Total or average(c)	5,320	48	580	56

(a) Includes only nonmarried women with no children.
(b) Includes only respondents living with at least one other family member.
(c) Includes other categories not specified.
(d) Includes only respondents living with their mothers at age 14.

Table 7.5 Proportion Aspiring to 16 or More Years of Education, by Whether Parents Are Living and Color: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in Elementary or High School[(a)]

Whether parents are living	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 years or more	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 years or more
Both parents living	5,418	49	692	53
Mother living, father dead	239	31	70	54
Total or average[(b)]	5,719	48	779	54

(a) Includes only nonmarried women with no children.
(b) Includes a few women for whom father is alive and mother is dead.

Educational Experiences

Educational experiences are obviously interrelated with family background as well as other variables. Whether a girl attends a private rather than a public school, for example, is frequently related to family income. Nevertheless, the way in which educational aspirations vary with educational experience is worth observing because it serves to demonstrate the complexity of the relationships between the individual, her self-conception (in this case educational goals), and society's processes for distributing people among various social strata. We have used the following indicators of the respondent's educational experience: reaction to high school, type of high school attended, high school curriculum in which enrolled, clerical courses completed in high school, high school subjects enjoyed most, and where homework is done. We expected the following relationships: young women with the highest educational aspirations would be those who like school most; attend the more expensive private schools; are enrolled in college preparatory, rather than commercial or general curricula; do not take courses often considered terminal in nature, such as typing or shorthand; have a preference for subjects such as mathematics, science, and foreign language; and do their homework at home rather than at school.

Explication of the expected relationships, however, says nothing about cause and effect. Some students may like school because they were socialized to perceive education as a means of self-satisfaction.

Others, while not having been oriented in this fashion, may find that they like school because the educational experience itself produces satisfaction. Still others may have learned in the home and neighborhood to perceive education as irrelevant, and the educational experience, whatever its nature and extent, may not be able to change that conception. In other words, educational experiences may have little or no effect on educational goals. At this point we can do little more than speculate about the possible effects of school experience upon perceptions. Future analysis will be facilitated by the introduction of an intelligence measure.

Nevertheless, whatever the direction of causation, the data illustrate the general proposition that there is a strong congruence between the characteristics of the respondent, what she hopes to become, and her educational experiences. Young women whose educational experiences are most closely related to college education are more likely than others to aspire to 16 or more years of education (Table 7.6). For instance, those who like high school "very much" are more likely to want four or more years of college than those who report liking high school "fairly well" or disliking it to some degree. Those attending private schools--institutions which are often costly as well as academically selective--are more likely to aspire to 16 or more years of education than those attending public schools. Other relationships generally conform to expectations. Girls enrolled in college preparatory curricula are more likely to have high educational goals than those in general, or, especially, commercial curricula. With the exception of blacks who have had typing but not shorthand, girls with clerical skills are less likely than others to desire a college education. Reflecting a consistent pattern, women who report a commercial subject as their favorite one are less likely than those who most enjoyed a foreign language, science, or mathematics to aspire to four or more years of college. Finally, girls who do their homework at home generally have higher educational goals than those who limit their homework to time spent at school.[18] This implies that there is a congruence of educational interest and experience with other aspects of family life. There are, of course, several plausible reasons why this relationship exists.

Work and Marriage

In addition to variation in aspirations associated with educational experiences, a young woman's educational goals are related to her opinion of the ideal age for girls to marry, number of hours worked during the

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[18] Respondents with at least some high school but no college were asked: "Where do you normally do most of your homework?"

Table 7.6 Proportion Who Aspire to 16 or More Years of Education, by Selected Aspects of Their Educational Experience and Color: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in High School[a]

Aspect of educational experience	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 or more years	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 or more years
Reaction to high school[b]				
Like it very much	2,117	58	279	62
Like it somewhat	1,613	38	161	51
Dislike it somewhat	224	30	11	(d)
Total or average(c)	4,028	49	468	57
Type of high school				
Private	480	57	16	(d)
Public	4,851	47	642	57
Total or average	5,507	48	674	58
High school curriculum				
College preparatory	2,118	79	160	85
Commercial	768	11	91	33
General	2,335	34	374	52
Total or average(c)	5,507	48	674	58
Clerical courses completed				
No typing or shorthand	2,531	57	345	57
Typing only	2,068	46	264	60
Typing and shorthand	699	24	40	40
Total or average(c)	5,507	48	674	58
Subject enjoyed most(b)				
Science	441	72	43	63
Mathematics	455	60	46	67
Foreign language	224	63	14	(d)
Commercial	675	11	79	40
Total or average(c)	4,028	49	468	57
Where homework is done(b)				
At home	2,989	53	348	61
At school	988	35	107	41
Total or average(c)	4,028	49	468	57

(a) Includes only nonmarried women with no children.
(b) Includes only women who have completed at least one year of high school.
(c) Includes other categories not specified.
(d) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

survey week, and principal nonschool activity.[19] We expected that young women with relatively low aspirations would tend to be those who believed girls should marry while still in their teens, who worked the greatest number of hours per week, and who engaged in activities outside school which appear to be immediately productive financially or related to family life (e.g., working for pay or helping at home, rather than reading).

Both blacks and whites who indicate that the ideal age for marriage is 20 years or older are considerably more likely to aspire to four or more years of college than are youth who identify the ideal age as 18 to 19 (Table 7.7). Since successful pursuit of a college education may depend upon deferment of marriage, there is evidence of balance between the two. Marriage, of course, is an event with great implications for the life styles of young women. What is not clear, however, is whether educational goals are instrumental in shaping marriage considerations, or vice versa, or whether both of these dispositional properties are shaped by forces independent of either of them.

With respect to hours worked in the survey week and educational goals, the relationship is in the expected direction for both whites and blacks, although it is more pronounced among the former than among the latter (Table 7.7). Only 33 percent of the white girls who worked 15 or more hours during the survey week aspire to four or more years of college, compared to 53 percent of those who worked less than 15 hours. The corresponding percentages for black young women are 38 and 51 percent. While it is likely that working 15 or more hours per week is intercorrelated with socioeconomic status and school experience variables, it is also possible that holding a job has an independent effect on educational goals. For example, substantial work effort may demonstrate the influence of immediate dollar returns versus an uncertain, relatively long-run expected payoff from more education. Similarly, young women who report that the nonschool activity engaged in most is working for pay or helping at home are less likely to aspire to four or more years of college than those who indicate that their primary activities are nonschool sports, hobbies, or reading. Helping at home, like working for pay, may contribute to the formation of attitudes or habits which are related to short-run needs and returns. Later analyses based on year-to-year changes in aspirations and other factors may help us interpret what appear to be reasonably consistent but undoubtedly complex relationships.

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[19] All respondents were asked: "What do you think is the ideal age for girls to get married?" Respondents with some high school education but less than a year of college were queried: "When you were not involved in high school activities or studying, what activity took up most of your extra time during your last full high school year?"

Table 7.7 Proportion Aspiring to 16 or More Years of Education by Selected Characteristics: Women 14 to 17 Years of Age Enrolled in Elementary or High School(a)

Characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 or more years	Total number (thousands)	Percent who aspire to 16 or more years
Ideal age for girls to marry				
25 or older	578	63	147	58
20-24	4,251	52	477	58
18-19	754	18	135	40
17 or younger	42	(d)	8	(d)
Total or average	5,719	48	779	54
Hours worked in survey week(b)				
1-14	1,103	53	83	51
15 or more	395	33	33	38
Total or average	1,499	47	116	47
Nonschool activity engaged in most (c)				
Reading	426	61	86	68
Nonschool sports	406	47	31	63
Hobby	358	47	28	69
Work for pay	369	40	21	(d)
Helping at home	963	37	162	51
Other	1,470	57	127	54
Total or average	4,028	49	468	57

(a) Includes only nonmarried respondents with no children.
(b) Includes only respondents at work in survey week.
(c) Includes only respondents who have completed at least one year of high school.
(d) Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample bases.

IV SUMMARY

Unmarried and childless young women 14 to 17 years of age and enrolled in either elementary or high school constitute a large and relatively homogeneous subgroup within the cohort of women being studied. Over two-thirds say that they would like to obtain two or more years of post-secondary schooling--70 percent of the whites and 71 percent of the blacks. These proportions may be compared with those reported two years earlier by male students 14 to 17 years old: 74 percent of the whites but only 65 percent of the blacks aspired to a college education.

When asked how much education they actually expect to get, about one-tenth of the young women who aspire to college respond by saying high school graduation. For both sexes, educational goals and expectations are undoubtedly unrealistic in many cases, since they imply a future level of educational attainment that is significantly above the existing trend. In future reports, we shall be interested in exploring the correlates of stability and of change in aspirations over time.

Because many characteristics of young women and of their families are common to large segments of the population, it is difficult to know whether certain factors bear an independent relationship to levels of educational aspiration. Recognizing that several measures of family background, socioeconomic status, and educational experience are intercorrelated, it is nonetheless important to describe the kinds of patterns which have emerged from the first round interviews.

While nearly identical proportions of black and white girls aspire to a college education, when controlling for family background, color is very dramatically related to educational goals. To illustrate, while only 28 percent of the white young women whose mothers had less than 12 years of education aspire to four or more years of college, the same is true of 49 percent of their black counterparts. There is a comparable, albeit somewhat smaller, gap between white and black youngsters whose mothers obtained more than 12 years of schooling. Essentially the same intercolor pattern is also evident in several other measures of family background.

As anticipated, nearly every indicator of socioeconomic status shows that a higher proportion of youth from the middle than lower class want a college education. In this regard, for whites the strongest relationship is manifest in the number of other family members with 13 or more years of education, suggesting the likelihood that there are important interaction effects involving the education of mother, father, and siblings.

The overall congruence between family background and educational goals also exists when comparing the latter with several measures of educational experience. In general, young women in the following categories express a higher-than-average desire for at least some college education: those who like high school very much; are attending nonpublic schools; are enrolled in a college preparatory curriculum; have not taken typing, or especially, shorthand; most enjoy science, mathematics, and foreign language subjects; and do their homework at home.

General consistency between educational goals and style of life is likewise evident in another attitudinal measure used in the analysis--ideal age for girls to marry--and in work and other nonschool activities. Those youngsters who feel that the ideal age for marriage is sometime during the teens are less likely to aspire to college than those who say age 20 or older. Young women who worked 15 or more hours during the survey week or whose principal nonschool activities were "working for pay" or "helping at home" express a lower-than-average desire to obtain a college degree.

While the congruence between educational goals and actual behavior and attitudes is an interesting and important finding, there are anomalies in the case of black youngsters which are worth mentioning. In terms of access to reading material (library card, newspapers, magazines) at age 14, black girls who lacked one, two, or three of the items were more likely than those who had all three to want a college education. Moreover, black young women with both parents living are slightly less likely to aspire to four or more years of college than those who report that only their mothers are still alive. While we cannot, of course, rule out sampling error, these anomalies may be real. If so, we regrettably can provide no cogent explanation.

CHAPTER EIGHT*

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Several facets of the educational and labor market experiences of young women have been analyzed in earlier chapters of this volume. The analysis thus far, however, is but a prologue to an intensive longitudinal study of the career choices, educational experiences, labor market behavior, and unfolding familial responsibilities of women 14 to 24 years of age. Most of the girls near the younger end of this age continuum are still in high school. Many at the other end have finished school, have gone through a process of accommodation to the labor market, and, especially if they have children, have withdrawn from active participation in the labor force in order to care for their families at home. These are critical years in the lives of most women, years in which a young girl is faced with options and pressures to continue or to leave school, to seek a husband, to stay with her parental family, or to develop independence. These are truly "years for decision."

The total five-year study is designed to answer a number of questions related to this transition from school to home and work. We wish to understand, for example, how factors such as family background, family income, marital status, and the presence and number of children at home influence education and employment decisions. We explore the sources of variation in labor market behavior and experience in terms of several additional variables as well, such as color, highest year of school completed, job skills, health, access to child-care services, attitudes toward work and the proper role of women with children of preschool age, and local labor market conditions.

This volume has set the stage for longitudinal analysis of the cohort by examining its current school and labor market status. We have assessed the labor force participation and the unemployment experience of both students and nonstudents, and we have looked at probable sources of variation in these variables. We have likewise examined the future employment plans of those who were out of the labor force at the time of the survey. The types of jobs held by young women have been analyzed, along with hourly rates of pay, and child-care arrangements. We have also explored the prospective interfirm mobility of employed female youth as measured by their willingness to consider hypothetical alternative jobs. Finally, we have examined the aspirations and expectations with respect to further education of girls 14 to 17 years old who are still in elementary or high school.

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* This chapter was written by John R. Shea.

In this final chapter, we make no attempt to summarize our findings, since the reader interested in such a summary can consult the concluding section of each chapter. Rather, our purpose is to emphasize those aspects of the study which seem to contribute most to an understanding of the labor market and educational experiences of the young women under consideration and to provide guidelines for effective policies regarding this important source of "human power." We also identify the probable thrusts that our future research will take as the data from the follow-up surveys become available.

There is probably no other age group of females between the ages of 14 and 65 in which a few years make as much difference as they do in the case of the group under consideration in this study. At age 14 the youth is just embarking on her secondary education. She is below the legal age limit for marriage in most states and for almost all types of full-time employment; she generally has no economic responsibilities; she is just emerging from childhood into adolescence, with all that this implies for self-identity and choice of life style; and, she has very little knowledge or understanding of the contingencies of married life and the dimensions of the world of work. Four years later, if she has not gotten married or had a child in the interim, she is likely to have completed high school and to be faced with some combination of the following: entry to the labor market; continuation in school or in vocational training; and assumption of a new family role--either living on her own or formation of a new family. By age 24, she has, in the majority of cases, left school permanently, had one or more children, and withdrawn from the labor force.

As a consequence of this extreme variation, it is difficult, if not impossible, to generalize about the entire age cohort. Indeed, it has not even been possible to settle upon a designation for the total group that is equally appropriate for all of its subsets. "Young women " may imply a degree of maturity not present in most 14 year olds, while "girls" seems inappropriate for those who are married or raising children. The heterogeneity of the total age cohort is also responsible for the fact that much of the analysis has dealt with segments of the total sample. Some of the questions that have been important for those out of school (e.g., degree of attachment to current employer) would not be particularly interesting as applied to students. Conversely, an exploration of the educational aspirations and expectations of students has been easier to execute with our data and is also probably more meaningful than a similar analysis for nonstudents, particulary in view of the fact that changes in these aspirations will be studied in subsequent surveys.

In our first report on young men who were interviewed in 1966, we noted that labor force participation and unemployment rates uncovered in the longitudinal study (LGT) were generally in excess of those identified in the Current Population Survey (CPS). We expressed a suspicion that at least part of the differential may have been the result of interviewing strategy.[1] In the CPS a single member of the household (usually the woman of the house) answers for all family members. In the LGT, the relevant questions are directed at the youths themselves. We cannot, of course, rule out sampling error, and there are other methodological differences in the two surveys (e.g., slightly different questions and slight age discrepancies) that might account for the differences. Comparing the data from our February 1968 survey with estimates based on the CPS for the previous October, however, we find essentially the same pattern--participation rates for white and black students and nonstudents 14 to 24 years of age are on the order of 5 to 7 percentage points higher in the LGT than in the CPS, and unemployment rates, particularly those of young students, are also somewhat higher in the present survey. For example, the CPS for October 1967 shows an unemployment rate among black students in this age group of 20.7 percent, while the LGT (February 1968) reveals a rate of 26.8 percent. Again, the present survey differs from the CPS in several respects other than the source and timing of data collection. Hence, we are reserving final judgment on the causes of the differences, although our original suspicion is now stronger.

I SOURCES OF VARIATION IN EDUCATIONAL AND LABOR MARKET EXPERIENCE

While the principal focus of this study is on the unfolding educational and labor market experiences of female youth, we are cognizant of the more complex behavioral patterns of which these two kinds of experience are a part. Developing independence; getting married, divorced, or separated; bearing children--these and several other behavioral dimensions are undoubtedly intertwined with education and work. Moreover, the direction of causation is often unclear. While our presentation of data may imply that marriage and family life take precedence over employment decisions, we recognize (especially for some segments of the cohort) that fertility and other types of behavior are frequently influenced by labor market and educational experiences. We expect that the longitudinal character of the study will eventually allow us to determine the strength of various causal relationships.

One other observation is pertinent at this point. While there are substantial differences in the educational and labor market behavior of female youth that are associated with age, most of this variation is related to school enrollment, and marital and family status. Only rarely does it seem likely that age, per se, is an important "determinant" of work-related behavior. The case of young teenagers who are prevented from working in some occupations because of their age is an important exception. In the following discussion, apparent "age effects" are considered along with variation in other important explanatory variables.

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[1] Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 188-89.

School Enrollment Status

There are such profound differences in labor market characteristics between youth enrolled in school and those not enrolled that it is seldom very meaningful to present labor force and employment statistics for the total group without a breakdown by school enrollment status. Data for young women 18 to 19 years of age are illustrative. The group is divided between those enrolled in school (40 and 38 percent of the whites and blacks, respectively) and those not enrolled. In the case of white girls, the former are only about half as likely as the latter to be in the labor force--34.8 versus 66.3 percent. Among blacks, there is less of a difference; nearly half (46.6 percent) of the students and slightly over three-fifths (61.9 percent) of the nonstudents were in the labor force at the time of the survey. These differences actually understate the differences attributable to enrollment status alone, since school girls in this age group tend to be single and to have no children, while young women not enrolled in school are more frequently married and have children.

Among all women 14 to 24 years of age, there is surprisingly little variation in unemployment rates associated with school enrollment. On the other hand, for selected age groups whether a youngster is in school seems to make a difference. For instance, white girls 16 to 19 years of age who are not enrolled in school are more likely than their enrolled counterparts to be unemployed. The opposite appears to be the case for young women in their early twenties.

Marital and Family Status

Inadequate sample size prevents a confident statement for young women enrolled in school concerning the relationship between marital and family status, on the one hand, and labor force participation and unemployment, on the other. Most girls in school, even those between the ages of 18 and 24, are single. For out-of-school women in this age category, however, marital status and the presence of children appear to have independent effects on participation rates. Those with children have a participation rate about half that of young women without children. On the other hand, less than 10 percentage points separate the participation rates of the married and the nonmarried women without children.

It is noteworthy that unemployment rates are higher for married than nonmarried women, especially among 18 and 19 year olds not enrolled in school. Considering nonstudents between 18 and 24 years of age, those with children are more likely to be unemployed than those without. In general, never-married girls are more highly educated than their ever-married counterparts, and this may account for a portion of the difference in joblessness. We also suspect, however, that a substantial amount of the unemployment experienced by those with young children is associated with problems of reentry to the work force, "causal" searching, and restrictions on the type and conditions of work that would be accepted.

A woman's marital and family status frequently has a direct influence on her occupational assignment, since women with children often place restrictions (e.g., time, location) on the kinds of jobs they will consider. Hiring preferences and practices may also affect the kinds of jobs that such women find. Aside from these direct influences, as indicated above, marital and family status is intercorrelated with factors such as educational attainment and health, which also help determine occupational assignments. Among employed women 18 to 24 years of age and not enrolled in school, a much larger fraction of those without children, compared to those with children, are in white-collar positions. Within the former category, married women are found in disproportionately large numbers in professional and technical jobs, while the nonmarried group is concentrated in clerical positions.

Education, Training, and Health

It is hardly surprising that the number of years of school completed has a very substantial effect upon many aspects of the youth's labor market experience. Without an intensive multivariate analysis of the data, it is difficult, of course, to disentangle completely the influence of educational attainment from that of marital and family status, extent of labor market experience, and age. Nevertheless, to some extent it has been possible to control statistically for these other factors. Among nonstudents 20 to 24 years of age, there is a moderate and positive relationship between labor force participation and years of school completed, controlling for marital and family status. Also there is an inverse relationship between years of schooling and the probability of being unemployed.

As anticipated, highest year of school completed bears an important relationship to the occupational assignments of women. At one extreme, over half of the out-of-school 18 to 24 year olds in professional and technical positions have completed 16 or more years of education. At the other extreme, approximately one-third of the blue-collar and service workers have not completed high school. Finally, educational attainment is related positively to hourly rate of pay, at least in the case of nonstudents 18 to 24 years of age, employed as wage and salary workers.

While the relationship is not exceptionally strong, having had typing and/or shorthand in high school and the extent of occupation-related training outside the formal school system appear to be positively related to labor force participation and inversely correlated with the probability of being unemployed. The effects of typing and shorthand are particularly interesting. Girls with 12 years of education are more likely to have had typing or typing and shorthand than are girls with either more or less than that amount of school. For both black and white young girls with 12 years of school, the probability of having white-collar employment is substantially enhanced for those who have had either typing alone or typing in combination with shorthand. White girls, however, are some three times as likely to have had such a background as are black girls. Thus intercolor differential is all but eliminated among those who have gone beyond twelfth grade, it should be noted.

Reported health-imposed work limitations appear to be correlated with educational attainment. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that among nonstudents, those without health limitations were more likely to be either employed or looking for work during the survey week than were those with such limitations.

Family Background

The labor market experiences of young women are influenced substantially by the socioeconomic status and behavior of their families, albeit largely indirectly through the "effect" that such factors manifest on educational attainment. In the case of 14 to 17 year old girls who have not yet completed high school, nearly every indicator of family background (e.g., educational attainment of father, mother, and older siblings; family income; etc.) shows the expected relationship to educational aspirations, as measured by the percentage of respondents who aspire to 16 or more years of education. Those who have high educational aspirations generally have consistent views with respect to the ideal age for girls to marry, and their activities outside school frequently fall within the scholastic domain.

In the case of young women no longer attending school, the educational attainments of father and mother are strongly and positively related to their own levels of education. Access to reading materials at age 14 exhibits a very strong relationship to educational attainment, especially among young white women.

Color

While often not so great as in the case of male youth, there are several important differences between white and black young women that deserve comment. Black girls are less likely than white to be enrolled in school. Among those enrolled, blacks are more frequently over-age in grade than whites, and are considerably less likely than whites to be enrolled in college preparatory programs in high school. High school students in both color groups express approximately the same attitudes toward school. For instance, comparable proportions like school either "very much" or "fairly well."

When it comes to those out of school, young black women have less education than their white counterparts. On the other hand, approximately the same fraction of each group has received training outside "regular" school, and the pattern of training reported is much the same. The nature and extent of training outside school appears to make up in part for a deficiency in earlier educational experiences, since white girls more frequently report having had typing and (especially) shorthand training while in high school.

As is well understood, many differences between black and white youth are the product of disparities in socioeconomic and family background. Black youth are more likely than white to have rural backgrounds and to come from broken homes headed by women. In terms of family income, access to reading materials in the home at age 14, occupation and education of parents, or any other measure of socioeconomic status, blacks fall far behind whites. However, controlling for factors of this kind frequently reverses the black-white difference in school enrollment and educational attainment. Undoubtedly related, at least in part, to variation in socioeconomic background are intercolor differences in marital and family status. Blacks not enrolled in school are much more likely than whites to be unmarried but to have children. At the same time, a much higher proportion of young white women are married without children.

For whatever reason, black young women hold somewhat different attitudes toward work and home than do white women. For example, if educational attainment is controlled, employed black women are less likely than employed white women to cite "liking the work" as more important than "good wages" when asked to evaluate jobs in general. In addition, they express favorable attitudes toward the employment of mothers with preschool children more frequently than whites, and their plans for age 35 reflect a similar emphasis on the ethic of work.

Many of the differences just cited help account for intercolor variation in educational aspirations, experience in the labor market, prospective interfirm and labor force mobility, and retrospective evaluation of educational experiences. Beyond the early teens, black young women have higher labor force participation rates than white, and this difference is attributable entirely to a much higher rate on the part of married black women with children. Higher unemployment rates among black women may be partly a function of their greater attachment to the labor force than in the case of white. That is, when they lose their jobs they may tend to stay in the labor force (and thus be counted among the unemployed), whereas the white young women may be more likely to withdraw from the labor force upon loss of job.

Taking into account differences between the two color groups in educational attainment, marital and family status, and attitudes, important differences in labor market behavior and success still emerge. For instance, black high school graduates who took typing and shorthand while in school are much less likely than their white counterparts to be employed in clerical and sales positions. On the other hand, blacks with exactly 12 years of education who are employed in clerical positions earn slightly more, on the average, than comparable whites. We suspect that a large proportion of black clerical workers are employed in big cities in the industrial North. Hence, while racial discrimination in employment is undoubtedly important, we shall have to control for more variables before being able to make confident estimates of the extent of this racial bias in the employment of young women. That locational factors (segregated housing patterns, location of industry, rural-urban variations) are important for proper interpretation of black-white differences in labor market behavior seems clear on the basis of such disparities as, for example, those in child-care arrangements where, compared to young white women, black women more frequently use the services of relatives.

II A FORWARD LOOK

At several places in previous chapters we have referred to important questions for longitudinal analysis which we expect to pursue when data from succeeding surveys become available. It seems fitting to conclude this volume by presenting a somewhat more systematic, though not exhaustive, preview of the kinds of analyses we intend to make and the major types of hypotheses we intend to test.

To begin with, collection of detailed work histories over a five-year period will permit us to examine over a long period of time some of the relationships reported here on the basis of data for a single year. An advantage in doing so is that we would expect greater variation in some of the variables over a number of years. For example, a larger fraction of the out-of-school young women who are now 20 to 24 years of age undoubtedly will experience unemployment and periods of withdrawal from the labor force over a five-year than over a one-year period. This should increase the statistical reliability of our analysis of, say, the effect of unemployment on work attitudes, since the numerical base for our percentage distributions of those with some unemployment will be larger.

Second, after each survey we expect to describe and to analyze changes in school enrollment status and in various aspects of labor market status. Merely quantifying the extent of gross movement into and out of the formal educational system, the labor force, between employment and unemployment, and among different kinds of jobs will be instructive, since there is little knowledge about the magnitude of these types of change. Of greater interest, however, will be the exploration of the "causes" and "consequences" of such changes. For example, in what respects do youth who leave school during the course of the year differ from those in the same year of school who continue? What are the relative influences of attitude toward school, marriage and pregnancy, economic need, scholastic ability, socioeconomic background, and characteristics of the school? As another example, to what extent are changes in personal health reflected in movement into or out of school or the labor force? Are the generally higher labor force participation rates of black women systematically related to employment difficulties experienced by many of their husbands? Or, are such rates intimately linked to differences in role expectations and attitudes toward child care that have deeper roots? Are never-married women more likely than their ever-married counterparts to make some progress in moving up career ladders over time--a hypothesis suggested by the data in our first report on adult women.[2] Are women who change employers more likely than nonchangers to feel increased satisfaction in their work? Are they more or less likely to earn more money? For any given wage rate adjustment, is there a tendency toward offsetting variation in child-care expenses? These questions are only illustrative of the rich mine of data to be exploited. Our plan of analysis also calls for ascertaining the correlates of most of the dimensions of labor mobility: movement into and out of the labor force; from unemployment to employment and vice versa; between occupations (with or without an accompanying change of employer); between employers (with or without an accompanying change of occupation); and between different labor market areas.

A third area of interest, closely related to the second, involves a test of the predictive value of several of the attitudinal measures and an assessment of their stability over time. Are a young woman's plans for age 35 predictive of perseverance in school and future labor force participation in the short run? Do responses concerning what would be done were she to lose her job discriminate between those who, in fact, would leave instead of stay in the labor force? Would the predictive efficiency of these measures be improved by combining them into an index with other measures, such as degree of job satisfaction, motivation to work, perception of their husbands' attitudes toward their working, and commitment to the work role? Are the attitudes of these girls toward the proper role of young mothers strong and stable, or are these feckless attitudes subject to alteration as a result of labor market experiences and the availability of child-care services? Answers to these questions have significance both from the standpoint of interpreting labor market behavior and guiding the formulation of policy and from a methodological point of view, since they permit an assessment of the utility of eliciting responses to attitudinal questions.

Fourth, we shall be particularly interested in "career choice" and unfolding life styles. Given changing attitudes on the part of society toward the proper roles of women, there is abundant room, at least in comparison to men, for variation in the degree and timing of participation in formal labor market activities. We wish to know to what extent the educational aspirations and plans of young women change over time.

A fifth area of inquiry concerns career occupational mobility and rates of pay. Commitment to "equal pay for equal work" and concern that career possibilities be open to all, regardless of sex and race, demands that we examine carefully the employment experiences of young women to determine the probable magnitude and location of discrimination in employment. In this regard, several important variables that were not on hand for the present report will be available for use in subsequent ones. Among the most important of these are measures of mental ability (either I.Q., achievement, or aptitude scores) and several characteristics of the high schools attended by the respondents. These data, together with comparable data on young men gathered at the same time, will permit, among other things, refined estimates of the influence of education, sex, and race on occupational assignment and rate of pay. In assessing the influence of years of school completed on earnings, we hope to be able to control for variations in intelligence and variations in the quality of schooling as well as for such factors as socioeconomic status of family and attitudinal characteristics.

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[2] Shea, et al., Dual Careers, Vol. I, pp. 150-51.

Finally, we expect to evaluate the effects of certain changes in the environment within which individuals live and work. What can be done in this connection obviously will depend on how much variation occurs in the "environment" over the five-year period. The influence of recent fluctuation in the level of economic activity on school attendance, on the volume and pattern of mobility, and on degree of attachment to an employer and to the labor force may be explored. Should there be major innovations in human resource and welfare policy, it may be possible to test their effects on the age group of young women under consideration. For example, we may inquire whether reform in the public welfare system and expansion of day-care facilities have any perceptible effect on the labor force participation of young women in poverty families.

At the conclusion of the five years of study, there will have been assembled for this age group of women a larger body of data on educational and employment experiences and on attitudes toward work and home than has ever been accumulated for any national sample of individuals. At the same time, similar work is going forward on longitudinal studies of three other important segments of the population: men 45 to 59 years of age, women 30 to 44, and young men 14 to 24. The opportunities for analysis within each of these studies, to say nothing of the comparisons among them, are almost limitless. Hopefully, the results of the analysis will be new insights into labor market processes and problems that will not only improve our understanding of labor markets but also provide a firmer basis for private and public policies that will lead to improvements in the quality of life as well as to more effective and equitable development and utilization of the nation's human resources.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY

AGE

Age of respondent as of last birthday prior to January 1, 1968.

ATTACHMENT TO CURRENT JOB

Relative increase in rate of pay for which an employed respondent would be willing to accept a hypothetical offer of employment in the same line of work with a different employer in the same area. In addition, nonmarried respondents were asked the same question about a job in some other part of the country.

ATTITUDE TOWARD EMPLOYMENT OF MOTHERS

This attitudinal measure is based on responses to a series of three questions postulating the employment of a married woman with preschool-age children under specified conditions: (1) if it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet; (2) if she prefers to work and her husband agrees; and (3) if she prefers to work, but her husband does not particulary like it. The responses were scored as follows: for each question, "definitely all right" was weighted 5 points; "probably all right," 4 points; no opinion or undecided, 3 points; "probably not all right," 2 points; and "definitely not all right," 1 point. The composite score for each respondent thus had a possible range of 3 to 15. Scores of 3 through 9 were designated "opposed"; 10 and 11, "ambivalent"; and 12 through 15, "permissive."

ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB

A woman's report of her feelings toward her job when confronted by the following four alternatives: "like it very much," "like it fairly well," "dislike it somewhat," and "dislike it very much."

CLASS OF WORKER

Wage and Salary Worker

A person working for a rate of pay per time-unit, commission, tips, payment in kind, or piece rates for a private employer or any government unit.

Self-employed Worker

A person working in her own unincorporated business, profession, or trade, or operating a farm for profit or fees.

Unpaid Family Worker

A person working without pay on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the household to whom she is related by blood or marriage.

CLERICAL COURSES COMPLETED IN HIGH SCHOOL

A measure of whether the respondent has completed courses such as typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, office machine operation, etc., in high school. We are most interested in typing and shorthand training.

COLOR

In this report the term "blacks" refers only to Negroes; "whites" refers to Caucasians. Nonblack nonwhites are not considered separately, but are included in grand totals in at least one table.

CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY (CPS)

Monthly sample survey of the population conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, in which the size and characteristics of the labor force are estimated.

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

Total number of years of regular school that the respondent would like to achieve.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT: See HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Total number of years of regular school that the respondent thinks she will actually achieve.

EFFECT OF ENDING EDUCATION

Respondents who are not college graduates were categorized according to whether they thought not having more education had hurt them in any way.

EMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

EXPOSURE TO READING MATERIALS AT AGE 14

Whether the respondent had access to a library card, newspapers, or magazines in the home at age 14.

HEALTH LIMITATIONS

Respondent's evaluation of whether her health or physical condition limits her activities or the kind of work she is able to perform.

HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Orientation and goal of high school courses, usually related to future educational or occupational plans. Categories used are college preparatory, vocational, commerical, and general.

HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

The highest grade finished by the respondent in "regular" school, where years of school completed are denoted 9-11, 12, 13-15, etc.

HOURLY RATE OF PAY

Hourly compensation in dollars for work performed. Self-employed are excluded because of the problems encountered in attempting to allocate their earning among wages and other kinds of returns. When a time unit other than hours was reported, hourly rates were computed by first converting the reported figure into a weekly rate and then dividing by the number of hours usually worked per week.

HOURS WORKED DURING SURVEY WEEK

The total number of hours worked at all jobs held by the respondent during the calendar week preceding the date of interview.

INDEX OF DEMAND FOR FEMALE LABOR

An indicator of the extent to which the industrial structure of a community is such as to provide a large proportion of jobs that are normally held by women. For each PSU we multiplied the number employed (in 1960) in each industry by the national fraction of that industry's employment represented by women. The sum of these products for each PSU was divided by the total civilian employment in the PSU (omitting the "industry not reported" group). The result was the "index of demand for female labor." The PSU's were then divided into two nearly equal groups of "high demand" (index of 32 and over) and "low demand" (index under 32).

INDUSTRIAL DIVERSIFICATION, DEGREE OF

For each of the major industry divisions the difference between the percent employed in that industry in each PSU and the percent employed in that industry nationally (for both sexes) was calculated. The differences were summed, disregarding sign, and then halved. Distributions were obtained of the resulting indices. PSU's were divided into low, medium, and high diversification by creating three groups as nearly equal in size as possible.

INDUSTRY

The 10 one-digit classes of the Bureau of the Census functional classification of employers on the basis of final product.

JOB

Current or Last Job

For those respondents who were employed during the survey week: the job held during the survey week. For those respondents who were either unemployed or out of the labor force during the survey week: the most recent job.

First Job

The first job at which the respondent worked for at least one month after she stopped going to school full time.

LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

In the Labor Force

All respondents who were either employed or unemployed during the survey week:

Employed

All respondents who during the survey week were either (1) "at work"--those who did any work or pay or profit or worked without pay for 15 hours or more on a family farm or business; or (2) "with a job but not at work"--those who did not work and were not looking for work, but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of vacation, illness, industrial dispute, bad weather, or because they were taking time off for various other reasons.

Unemployed

All respondents who did not work at all during the survey week and (1) either were looking or had looked for a job in the four-week period prior to the survey; (2) were waiting to be recalled to a job from which they were laid off; or (3) were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Out of the Labor Force

All respondents who were neither employed nor unemployed during the survey week.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE

The proportion of the total civilian noninstitutional population or of a subgroup of that population classified as "in the labor force."

LENGTH OF SERVICE IN CURRENT (LAST) JOB

The total number of years spent by the respondent in her current (or most recent) job.

MARITAL STATUS

Respondents were classified into the following categories: married, husband present; married, husband absent; divorced; separated; widowed; and never married. The term "married" refers only to those who are married with husband present; "nonmarried" is a combination of all other categories. The term "ever married" includes all categories with the exception of the never married.

MOTIVATION TO WORK

Respondents were classified according to which they thought was more important in a job--"good wages" or "liking the work."

NONSTUDENT

All respondents not enrolled in regular school at the time of the survey.

OCCUPATION

The major occupation groups are the 10 one-digit classes used by the Bureau of the Census in the 1960 Census, with the addition of breaking the service workers into two groups, domestic and nondomestic. The occupational groupings are: white-collar (professional and technical workers; managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical workers; and sales workers); blue-collar (craftsmen and foremen, operatives, and nonfarm laborers); service (domestic and nondomestic); and farm (farmers, farm managers, and farm laborers).

OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

Program(s) taken outside the regular school system for other than social or recreational purposes. Sponsoring agents include government, unions, and business enterprises. A training course sponsored by a company must last at least two weeks to be considered a "program."

OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

A maximum employment of 34 hours per week. The two ways in which this measure is used are: (1) actual number of hours worked during the survey week at all jobs; (2) usual number of hours worked per week on current or last job.

PRIMARY SAMPLING UNIT (PSU)

One of the 235 areas of the country from which the sample for this study was drawn; usually an SMSA (Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area) or a county.

PROFESSIONAL OR TRADE CERTIFICATION

The possession of a certificate required for practicing any profession or trade, such as teacher, registered nurse, practical nurse, or beautician.

REACTION TO HIGH SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

Respondent's report of her feelings about her high school experience when given four alternatives: "like it very much," "like it fairly well," "dislike it somewhat," and "dislike it very much."

REACTION TO HYPOTHETICAL JOB OFFER

Answer of respondents out of the labor force to a question about whether they would accept a job offer in the local area.

REGULAR SCHOOL

"Regular" schools include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and high schools; colleges; universities; and professional schools.

RESIDENCE AT AGE 14

Degree of urbanization of area in which the respondent lived when she was 14 years of age. Categories are: farm or ranch; rural nonfarm; town; suburb of city; small city (25,000-100,000); and large city (100,000 or more).

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT STATUS

An indication of whether or not the respondent is presently enrolled in regular school.

SELF-EMPLOYED: See CLASS OF WORKER

SPELL OF UNEMPLOYMENT

A continuous period of at least one week's duration during which the respondent was unemployed. A spell may be terminated either by employment or by withdrawal from the labor force.

SURVEY WEEK

For convenience, the term "survey week" is used to denote the calendar week preceding the date of interview. In the conventional parlance of the Bureau of the Census, it means the "reference week."

TOTAL FAMILY INCOME

Income from all sources (including wages and salaries, net income from business or farm, pensions, dividends, interest, rent, royalties, social insurance, and public assistance) received in 1967 by any family member living in the household during the survey week. Income of nonrelatives living in the household is not included.

UNEMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

UNEMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE IN 1967

Cumulative number of weeks in calendar year 1967 that the respondent reported she was not working but was looking for work or on lay-off from a job.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

The proportion of the labor force classified as unemployed.

UNPAID FAMILY WORKER: See CLASS OF WORKER

WAGE AND SALARY WORKER: See CLASS OF WORKER

WEEKS EMPLOYED IN 1967

Cumulative number of weeks in calendar year 1967 that the respondent reported that she worked.

WORK EXPERIENCE

Any full- or part-time employment experienced by the respondent at any time during her life lasting two or more consecutive weeks.

APPENDIX B*

SAMPLING, INTERVIEWING, AND ESTIMATING PROCEDURES

The Survey of Work Experience of Women 14 to 24 Years of Age is one of four longitudinal surveys sponsored by the Manpower Administration of the U. S. Department of Labor. Taken together these surveys constitute the National Longitudinal Surveys.

The Sample Design

The National Longitudinal Surveys are based on a multi-stage probability sample located in 235 sample areas comprising 485 counties and independent cities representing every state and the District of Columbia. The 235 sample areas were selected by grouping all of the nation's counties and independent cities into about 1,900 primary sampling units (PSU's) and further forming 235 strata of one or more PSU's that are relatively homogeneous according to socioeconomic characteristics. Within each of the strata a single PSU was selected to represent the stratum. Within each PSU a probability sample of housing units was selected to represent the civilian noninstitutionalized population.

Since one of the survey requirements was to provide separate reliable statistics for Negroes and other races, households in predominantly Negro and other race enumeration districts (ED's) were selected at a rate three times that for households in predominantly white ED's. The sample was designed to provide approximately 5,000 interviews for each of the four surveys--about 1,500 Negroes and other races and 3,500 whites. When this requirement was examined in light of the expected number of persons in each age-sex-color group it was found that approximately 42,000 households would be required in order to find the requisite number of Negroes and other races in each age-sex group.

An initial sample of about 42,000 housing units was selected and a screening interview took place in March and April 1966. Of this number about 7,500 units were found to be vacant, occupied by persons whose usual residence was elsewhere, changed from residential use, or demolished.

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* This appendix was written by Rachel Cordesman, member of the Longitudinal Surveys Branch, Demographic Surveys Division, U. S. Bureau of the Census.

On the other hand, about 900 additional units were found which had been created within existing living space or had been changed from what was previously nonresidential space. Thus, 35,360 housing units were available for interview; of these, usable information was collected for 34,662 households, a completion rate of 98.0 percent.

Following the initial interview and screening operation, the sample was rescreened in the fall of 1966, immediately prior to the first Survey of Work Experience of Males 14 to 24. For the rescreening operation, the sample was stratified by the presence or absence of a 14 to 24 year-old male in the household. The rescreened sample was used to designate 5,533 young women age 14 to 24 as of January 1, 1968, to be interviewed for the Survey of Work Experience. These were sampled differentially within four strata: whites in white ED's (i.e., ED's which contained predominantly white households), Negroes and other races in white ED's, whites in Negro and other race ED's, and Negroes and other races in Negro and other race ED's.

The Field Work

Three hundred and twenty-one interviewers were assigned to the survey. Many of the procedures and the labor force and socioeconomic concepts used in this survey were identical or similar to those used in the Current Population Survey (CPS); by selecting a staff of interviewers with CPS experience, the quality of the interviewers was increased but the time and costs of the training were reduced.

The training program for the interviewers consisted of a home study package which included a set of exercises covering the procedures and concepts explained in the reference manual, supplemented by a day of classroom training conducted by a survey supervisor. The supervisor was provided with a "verbatim" training guide which included lecture material and a number of structured practice interviews which were designed to familiarize the interviewers with the questionnaire. All training materials were prepared by the Bureau staff and reviewed by the Manpower Administration and the Center for Human Resource Research of the Ohio State University. Thirty training sessions were held in twenty-seven cities throughout the country. Professional staff members of the participating organizations observed the training sessions, and later, the actual interviewing.

Training began January 22, 1968, and the interviewing immediately thereafter. The interviewing continued until the end of April, one month beyond the original closeout date. Completion of the field work was delayed for several reasons: the interviewers had to devote about one week a month to CPS, and a number of the interviewers had other surveys for which they were responsible in addition to this one. However, there were several other significant factors which affected the interviewer's ability to complete her assignment on time:

1. At least a year and a half had passed since the household screening and the listed addresses were obsolete for a number of the respondents. Therefore, a great deal of time was spent in locating respondents.

2. Most of the respondents were attending school and/or working; thus, there were only certain times of the day that the respondent was potentially available for interviewing.

Of the 5,533 respondents originally selected, 56 were found to be out of the 14 to 24 year-old age group and were deleted from the workload. Of the adjusted workload, 5,477 cases, 5,159 respondents were interviewed for a completion rate of 94.2 percent. The distribution of the 318 noninterview cases was as follows:

	Unable to locate	Refusals	Other	Total non-interviews
Number of noninterviews	120	151	47	318
Percent of workload	2.2	2.8	0.8	5.8
Percent of all noninterviews	37.7	47.5	14.8	100.0

A preliminary edit to check the quality of the completed questionnaires was done by the regional office staffs. This edit consisted of two stages; a full edit of the first three questionnaires returned by each interviewer and a partial edit of the remaining questionnaires from her assignment. The full edit consisted of reviewing the questionnaires from beginning to end, to determine if the entries were complete and consistent and whether the skip instructions were being followed. The interviewer was contacted by phone concerning minor problems, and depending on the nature of the problem was either merely told of her error and asked to contact the respondent for further information or for clarification. For more serious problems the interviewer was retrained, either totally or in part, and the questionnaire was returned to her for completion.

If the interviewer had conceptual or procedural problems, the complete edit was continued until the supervisor was satisfied that she was doing a complete and consistent job. The partial edit simply checked to determine that the interviewer had not inadvertently skipped any part of the questionnaire which should have been filled. Any questionnaire which failed the partial edit was returned to the interviewer for completion.

Estimating Methods

The estimation procedure adopted for this survey was a multi-stage ratio estimate. The first step was the assignment to each sample case of a basic weight which took into account the over-representation of Negro and other race strata, the rescreening procedure and the sampling fraction of the stratum from which it was selected. The sample drawn from the white stratum was selected at an eight out of nine ratio, while the selection for the sample for the Negro and other race stratum was at a seven out of eight ratio. Thus, from the Survey of Work Experience of Females 14 to 24, there were eight different base weights reflecting the differential sampling by color within stratum (i.e., white ED's versus Negro and other race ED's) during both the rescreening and selection operations.

1. Noninterview Adjustment

The weights for all interviewed persons were adjusted to the extent needed to account for persons for whom no information was obtained because of absence, refusals or unavailability for other reasons. This adjustment was made separately for each of twenty-four groupings: Census region of residence (Northeast, North Central, South, West), by residence (urban, rural farm, rural nonfarm), by color (white, Negro and other races).

2. Ratio Estimates

The distribution of the population selected for the sample may differ somewhat, by chance, from that of the nation as a whole, in such characteristics as age, color, sex, and residence. Since these population characteristics are closely correlated with the principal measurements made from the sample, the latter estimates can be substantially improved when weighted appropriately by the known distribution of these population characteristics.[1] This was accomplished through two stages of ratio estimation, as follows:

a. First-Stage Ratio Estimation

This is a procedure in which the sample proportions were adjusted to the known 1960 Census data on the color-residence distribution of the population. This step took into account the differences existing at the time of the 1960 Census between the color-residence distribution for the nation and for the sample areas.

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[1] See U. S. Bureau of the Census, Technical Paper No. 7, "The Current Population Survey--A Report on Methodology," Washington, D. C., 1963, for a more detailed explanation of the preparation of estimates.

b. Second-Stage Ratio Estimation

In this final step, the sample proportions were adjusted to independent current estimates of the civilian noninstitutional population by age and color. These estimates were prepared by carrying forward the most recent Census data (1960) to take account of subsequent aging of the population, mortality, and migration between the United States and other countries.[2] The adjustment was made by color within five age groupings: 14 to 15, 16 to 17, 18 to 19, 20 to 21, and 22 to 24.

After this step, each sample person has a weight which remains unchanged throughout the five-year life of the survey. The universe of study was thus fixed at the time of interview for the first cycle. No reweighting of the sample is made after subsequent cycles since the group of interviewed persons is an unbiased sample of the population group (in this case, civilian noninstitutionalized females age 14 to 24) in existence at the time of the first cycle only.

Coding and Editing

Most of the data could be punched directly from the questionnaire, since many of the answers were numerical entries or in the form of precoded categories. However, the Bureau's standard occupation and industry codes which are used in the monthly CPS were also used for the job description questions and these codes are assigned clerically. In addition, the answers for all the "open-end" questions had to be clerically coded, using categories which were previously developed in conjunction with the Center from hand tallies of a subsample of completed questionnaires from previous longitudinal surveys which contained the same questions.

The consistency edits for the questionnaire were completed on the computer. A modification of the CPS edit was used for the parts of the questionnaire which were similar to CPS; separate consistency checks were performed for all the other sections. None of the edits included an allocation routine which was dependent on averages or random information from outside sources, since such allocated data could not be expected to be consistent with data from subsequent surveys. However, where the answer to a question was obvious from others in the questionnaire, the missing answer was assigned to the item on the tape. For example, if item 21a ("Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your children while you are working?") was blank, but legitimate entries appeared in 21b and c ("What arrangements have you made?" and "What is the cost of these arrangements?") a "Yes" was inserted in 21a. In this case, only if 21a was marked "Yes," could 21b and c be filled; therefore, the assumption was made that either the key punch operator failed to punch the item or the interviewer failed to mark it.

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[2] See U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 352, November 18, 1966, for a description of the methods used in preparing these independent population estimates.

APPENDIX C

SAMPLING VARIATION

As in any survey based upon a sample, the data in this report are subject to sampling error, that is, variation attributable solely to the fact that they emerge from a sample rather than from a complete count of the population. Because the probabilities of a given individual's appearing in the sample are known, it is possible to estimate the sampling error, at least roughly. For example, it is possible to specify a "confidence interval" for each absolute figure or percentage, that is, the range within which the true value of the figure is likely to fall. For this purpose, the standard error of the statistic is generally used. One standard error on either side of a given statistic provides the range of values which has a two-thirds probability of including the true value. This probability increases to about 95 percent if a range of two standard errors is used.

Standard Errors of Percentages

In the case of percentages, the size of the standard error depends not only on the magnitude of the percentage, but also on the size of the base on which the percentage is computed. Thus, the standard error of 80 percent may be only 1 percentage point when the base is the total number of white women, but as much as 8 or 9 percentage points when the base is the total number of unemployed white women. Two tables of standard errors, one for whites and one for blacks, are shown below (Tables C-1 and C-2).

The method of ascertaining the appropriate standard error of a percentage[1] may be illustrated by the following example. Among black women in the age category 18 to 24 there are approximately 1,000,000 nonstudents of whom 90 percent have ever worked. Entering the table for black women with the base of 1,000,000 and the percentage 90 one finds the standard error to be 1.7 percent. Thus changes are about two out of three that a complete enumeration would have resulted in a figure between 88.3 and 91.7 percent (90 ± 1.7) and 19 out of 20 that the figure would have been between 86.6 and 93.4 percent (90 ± 3.4).

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[1] Because the sample is not random, the conventional formula for the standard error of a percentage cannot be used. The entries in the tables have been computed on the basis of a formula suggested by the Bureau of the Census statisticians. They should be interpreted as providing an indication of the order of magnitude of the standard error, rather than a precise standard error for any specific item.

Table C-1: Standard Errors of Estimated Percentages of Whites
(68 chances out of 100)

Base of percentage (thousands)	Estimated percentage				
	1 or 99	5 or 95	10 or 90	20 or 80	50
100	2.9	6.4	8.8	11.7	14.7
200	2.1	4.5	6.3	8.3	10.4
350	1.6	3.4	4.7	6.3	7.9
500	1.3	2.8	3.9	5.2	6.6
1,000	0.9	2.0	2.8	3.7	4.7
5,000	0.4	0.9	1.2	1.6	2.1
15,830	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.2

Table C-2: Standard Errors of Estimated Percentages of Blacks
(68 chances out of 100)

Base of percentage (thousands)	Estimated percentage				
	1 or 99	5 or 95	10 or 90	20 or 80	50
50	2.4	5.4	7.5	10.0	12.5
75	2.0	4.4	6.1	8.2	10.5
150	1.4	3.1	4.3	5.8	7.2
300	1.0	2.2	3.0	4.1	5.1
1,000	0.6	1.2	1.7	2.2	2.8
2,374	0.4	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.8

Standard Errors of Differences between Percentages

In analyzing and interpreting the data, interest will perhaps most frequently center on the question whether observed differences in percentages are "real," or whether they result simply from sampling variation. If, for example, one finds on the basis of the survey that 3.3 percent of the whites, as compared with 7 percent of the blacks, are unable to work, the question arises whether this difference actually prevails in the population or whether it might have been produced by sampling variation. The answer to this question, expressed in terms of probabilities, depends on the standard error of the difference between the two percentages, which, in turn, is related to their magnitudes as well as to the size of the base of each. Although a precise answer to the question would require extended calculation, it is possible to construct charts that will indicate roughly, for different ranges of bases and different magnitudes of the percentages themselves, whether a given difference may be considered to be "significant," i.e., is sufficiently large that there is less than a 5 percent chance that it would have been produced by sampling variation alone. Such charts are shown below.

The magnitude of the quotient produced by dividing the difference between any two percentages by the standard error of the difference determines whether that difference is significant. Since the standard error of the difference depends only on the size of the percentages and their bases, for differences centered around a given percentage it is possible to derive a function which relates significant differences to the size of the bases of the percentages. If a difference around the given percentage is specified, the function then identifies those bases which will produce a standard error small enough for the given difference to be significant. The graphs which follow show functions of this type; each curve identifies combinations of bases that will make a given difference around a given percentage significant. For all combinations of bases on or to the northeast of a given curve, the given difference is the maximum difference necessary for significance.

Thus, to determine whether the difference between two percentages is significant, first locate the appropriate graph by selecting the one labeled with the percentage closest to the midpoint between the two percentages in question. When this percentage is under 50, the base of the larger percentage should be read on the horizontal axis of the chart and the base of the smaller percentage on the vertical axis. When the midpoint between the two percentages is greater than 50, the two axes are to be reversed. (When the midpoint is exactly 50 percent, either axis may be used for either base.) The two coordinates identify a point on the graph. The relation between this point and the curves indicates the order of magnitude required for a difference between the two percentages to be statistically significant at the 5 percent confidence level.[2]

All this may be illustrated as follows. Suppose in the case of white women the question is whether the difference between 27 percent (on a base of 6,000,000(3)) and 33 percent (on a base of 5,000,000) is significant. Since the percentages center on 30 percent, Figure 4 should be used. Entering the vertical axis of this graph with 6,000,000 and the horizontal axis with 5,000,000 provides a coordinate which lies to the northeast of the curve showing combinations of bases for which a difference of 6 percent is significant. Thus the 6 percentage point difference (between 27 and 33 percent) is significant.

As an example of testing for the significance of a difference between the two color groups consider the following. The data in our study show that for women in the age cohort 18 to 24, 78 percent of the white nonstudents (on a base of 7,394,000) and 83 percent of the black nonstudents (on a base of 1,000,000) were in the labor force at least one week in 1967. To determine whether this intercolor difference is significant Figure 3 is used because the midpoint (81) between the two percentages is closer to 80 than 90.[4] Entering this graph at 1,000,000 on the vertical axis for blacks (calibrated along the right side of the figure) and at 7,394,000 on the horizontal axis for whites provides a coordinate which lies to the northeast of the 5 percent curve. Thus the 5 percentage point difference in labor force participation rate is significant.

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2 In another report by the staff of this Center (Belton M. Fleisher and Richard D. Porter, The Labor Supply of Males 45-59, (April 1970), Appendix B, pp.92 -110) it was argued that unadjusted standard errors (as opposed to the adjusted standard errors discussed in footnote 1) could be used to test for the significance of the coefficients in a linear regression. Clearly this argument applies to tests for the significance of the difference between proportions, and, as a result, the techniques used in this report are currently being altered. Thus the graphs should be interpreted as providing only a rough and conservative estimate of the difference required for significance.

3 Each of the curves in the graphs of this appendix illustrates a functional relationship between bases expressed in terms of actual sample cases. For convenience, however, the axes of the graphs are labeled in terms of blown-up estimates which simply reflect numbers of sample cases multiplied by a weighting factor.

4 If both percentages are less (greater) than 50 and the midpoint between the two percentages is less (greater) than the percentage for which the curves were constructed, the actual differences necessary for significance will be slightly less than those shown on the curve. The required differences shown on the curves understate the actual differences necessary for significance when both percentages are less (greater) than 50 and the midpoint is greater (less) than the percentage for which the curves were constructed.

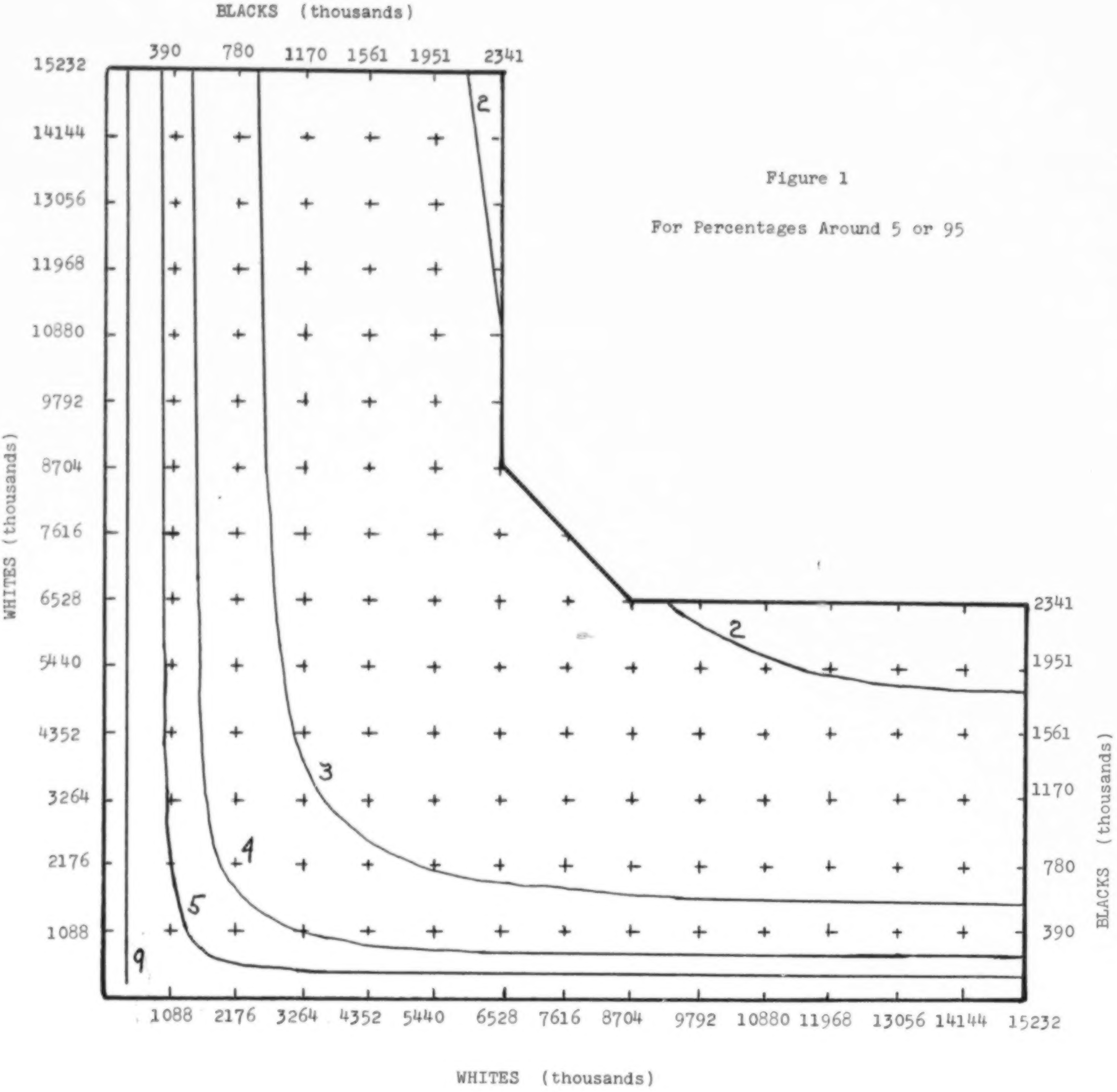

Figure 1

For Percentages Around 5 or 95

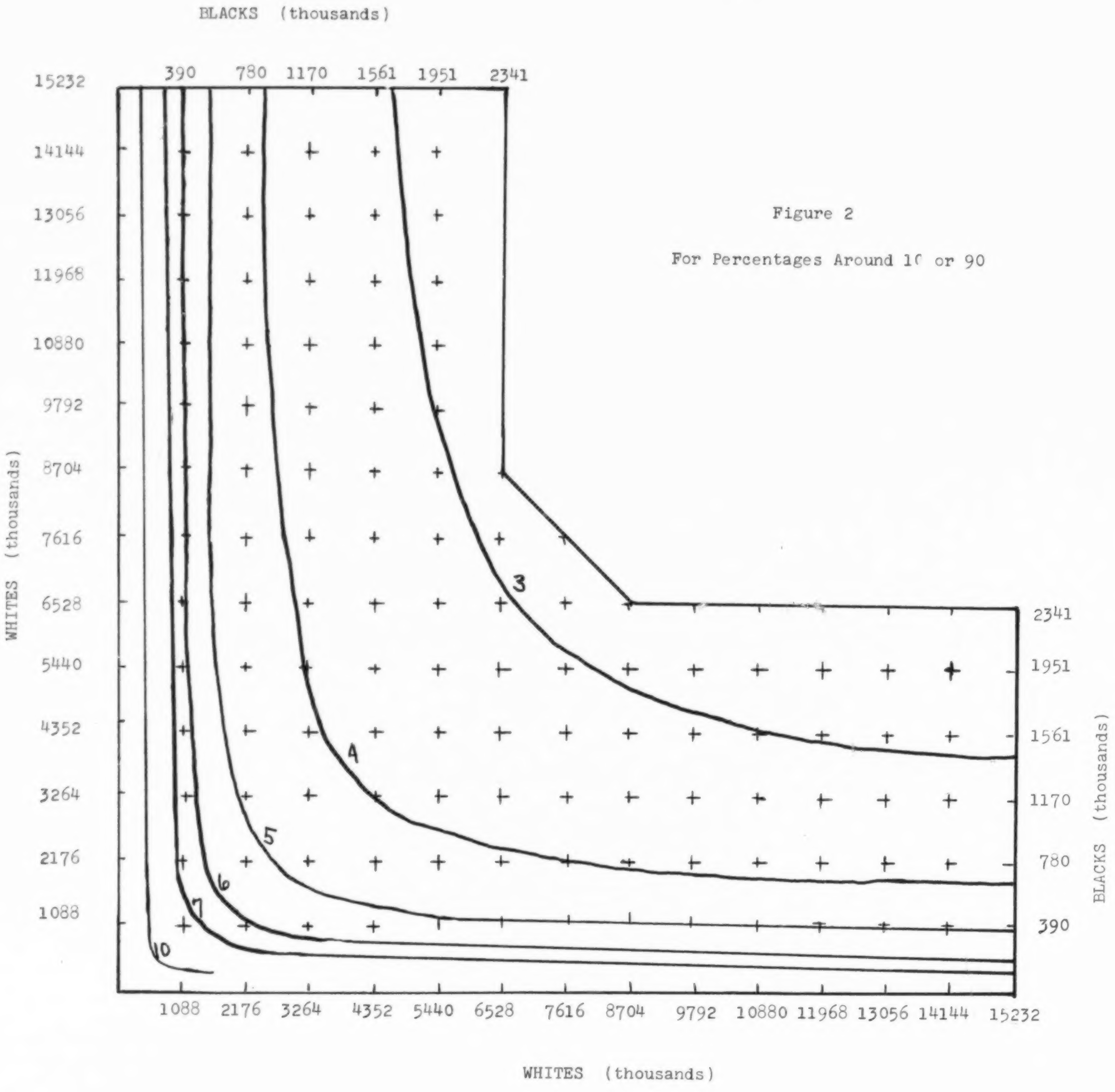

Figure 2

For Percentages Around 10 or 90

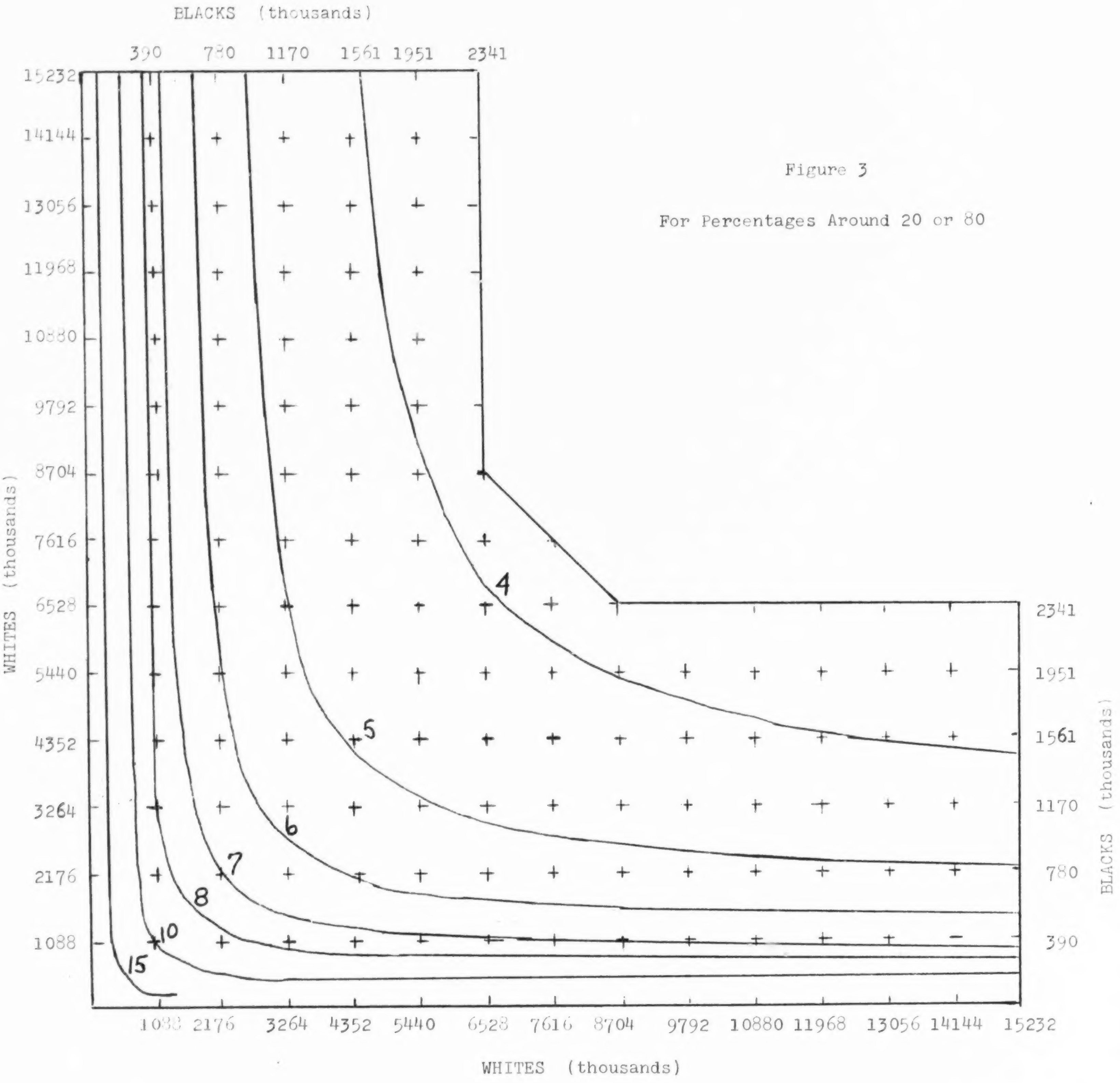

Figure 3

For Percentages Around 20 or 80

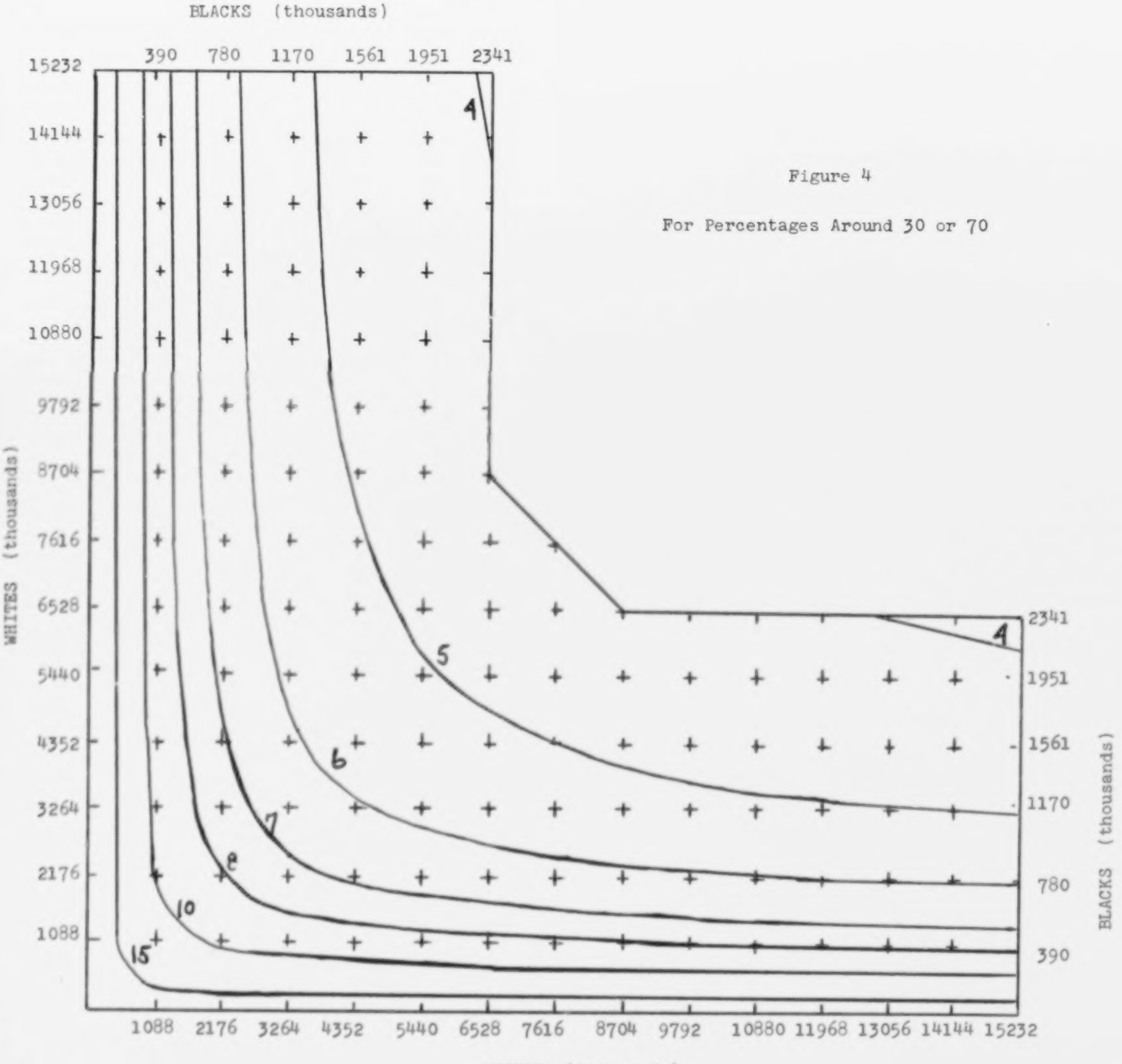

Figure 4

For Percentages Around 30 or 70

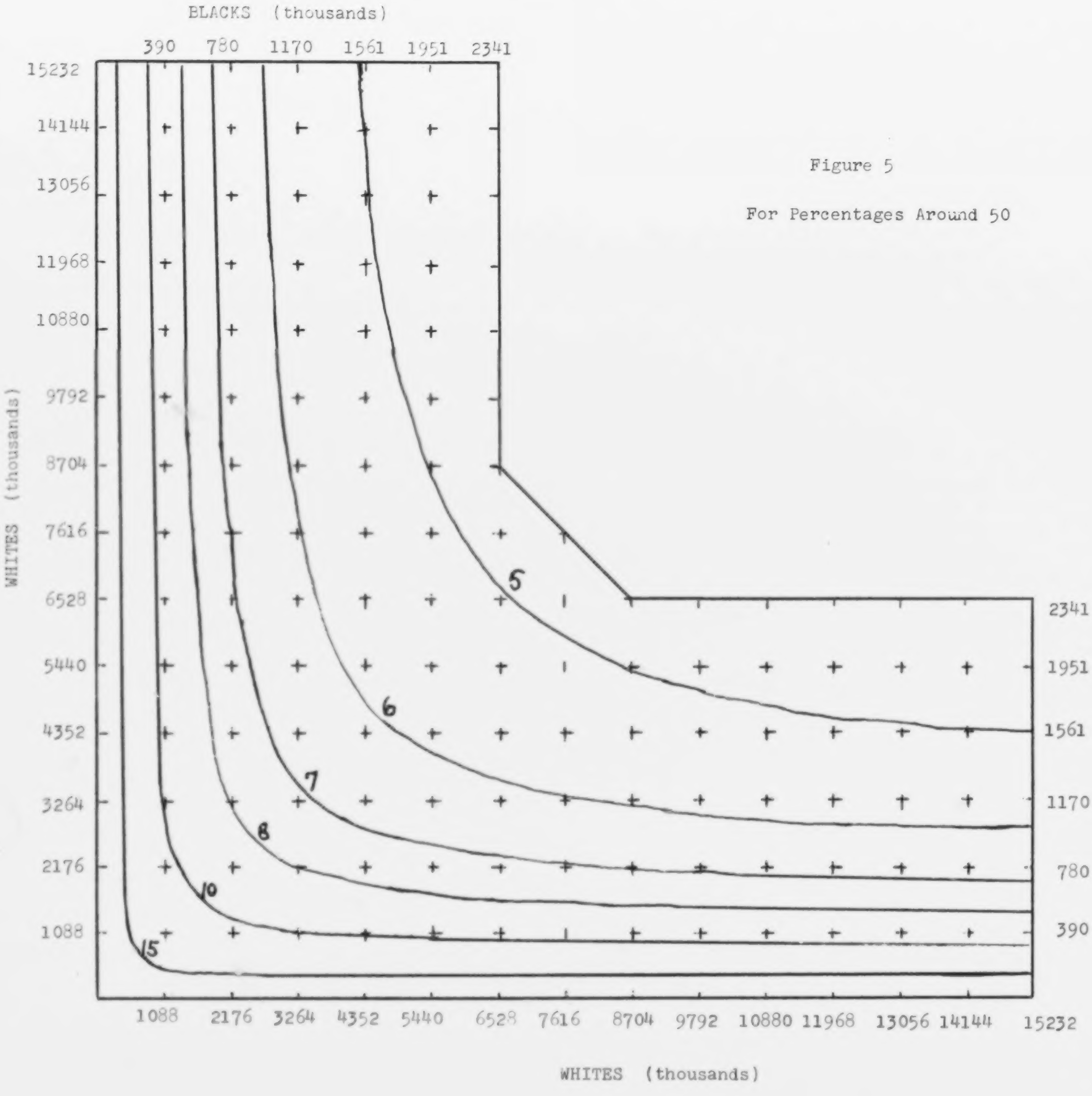

Figure 5

For Percentages Around 50

APPENDIX D

USE OF THE DUNCAN INDEX OF SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS TO MEASURE THE OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY OF ADULT WOMEN

The basic notion underlying the Duncan index of the socioeconomic status of occupations is that it is possible to arrange all occupations within a general hierarchical framework.[1] The Duncan index, however, was originally developed as a quantitative measure of the social position of men, and the question of whether the index is also a reasonably valid measure of the hierarchical position of occupations held by women was not considered. Given our use of the Duncan index in measuring the occupational mobility of women, there are two issues: Does the fact that data on women were not used in the construction of the index restrict its applicability to men? Assuming an affirmative answer to the first question, is the index reasonably stable over time; that is, does the index which was based on data gathered approximately 20 years ago, continue to measure the relative position of occupations?

Occupational prestige ratings developed by the National Opinion Research Center in the late 1940's form the basis for Duncan's index. Specific ratings were derived from an opinion survey based on a national sample of 2,920 persons in which each respondent was asked to assess the general standing of persons in each of 90 occupations. The precise rating for each occupation is simply the proportion of the sample of respondents who considered individuals in the occupation to be of "good" or "excellent" standing. Unfortunately, the NORC ratings fail to cover all Census occupations and those for which ratings are available encompassed less than half of the labor force in 1950. Nevertheless, the Duncan index represents an attempt to create a comprehensive, exhaustive index using NORC ratings as a foundation. From the 90 occupations for which prestige ratings were available, Duncan selected 45 which at that time corresponded directly to Census codes. Using standard statistical techniques, he then regressed measures of the income and education of men in these occupations in 1950 on the corresponding measure of prestige for each occupation. Because of the rather high positive correlation between the income and education variables, on the one hand, and prestige ratings on the other, his final step was to generate index values for all three-digit occupations by inserting measures of income and education for each Census occupation into the regression equation.

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[1] For a complete discussion of the index and the methods used in its construction, see Otis D. Duncan, "A Socioeconomic Index for All Occupations," in A. J. Reiss (ed.), Occupations and Social Status (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961).

A large proportion of the occupations for which prestige ratings are available either suggest a clear male image from their title (e.g., railroad brakeman) or are occupations which are rarely held by women. Furthermore, the language of the survey instrument clearly implied the solicitation of an opinion concerning the general standing of men in the occupation. Thus, if the prestigious occupations for men are not prestigious for women, or if the relative prestige difference between occupations depends crucially on sex, it may be argued that an index based on the NORC prestige ratings will be of limited assistance in the analysis of the occupational status of women. However, for purposes of our survey, the important issue is whether the Duncan index in its present form provides a measure of the relative desirability of occupations held by women, not whether it measures, in some sense, the "socioeconomic status" of women within a social class context. We are simply interested in arraying occupations held by women along a continuum of relative attractiveness.

Two potential problems are created by the income and education data that were used by Duncan to estimate his base regression. Since these data relate only to men, the resulting index is applicable to women only if measures of income and education for women in a sample of occupations are closely correlated with the measures of these same variables for men. Furthermore, Duncan used 1950 Census data, and given the extensive shifts in the supply and demand for female labor that have occurred in the last two decades, it seems quite legitimate to inquire whether interoccupational differences in the income and education of employed women may also have changed substantially. To the extent that such shifts have occurred, an index based on 1950 data may be of limited applicability today.

The discussion which follows provides some empirical evidence bearing on the following two questions. First, to what extent is a linear combination of the measures of income and education for women correlated with the Duncan index, which is a linear combination of the measures of income and education for men? Second, to what extent is an index based on 1950 data for women correlated with an index estimated on the basis of 1960 Census data?

The scheme that would generate an index most comparable to Duncan's would involve deriving measures of income and education for women identical to those that Duncan derived for men. Duncan used an elaborate age adjustment process in constructing his education and income variables. As far as can be determined, the absence of a comparable age adjustment for women would not alter substantially the resulting index--at least for purposes of the rough test contemplated here. The following measures of income and education were used in constructing the indices for women; they are conceptually identical to Duncan's except that they are not age adjusted:

${}_iX_1$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i with an income of $3,000 or more in 1949.
${}_iX_2$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i who had completed 12 or more years of school by 1949.
${}_iX_3$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i with an income of $5,000 or more in 1959.
${}_iX_4$ = the proportion of the women in occupation i who had completed 12 or more years of school by 1959

Since the value of the index for any given occupation i depends on the magnitude of the income measure, and since per capita income increased substantially between 1949 and 1959, an income line of $5,000 was used to construct X_3. This income line is an approximation which reflects the decennial increase in labor productivity as well as in the price level. Furthermore, the range of variation of X_3 approximates that of X_1.

To generate his index values, Duncan used the following regression equation:

$$I_i = .59Y_i + .55E_i - 6.0,$$

where I_i represents the index value for occupation i, Y_i the income measure, and E_i the education measure. Since the coefficients of Y and E in this equation are approximately equal to .5, an arithmetic average of the income and education measures ought to serve as a close approximation to the index values calculated using the original regression equation. To simplify calculation procedures, the following indices were constructed for women in the 45 occupations that Duncan used in his regression:

$${}_iW_{50} = \frac{{}_iX_1 + {}_iX_2}{2}$$

$${}_iW_{60} = \frac{{}_iX_3 + {}_iX_4}{2},$$

where W_{50} and W_{60} refer to the index values for the two years; X_1, X_2, X_3, and X_4 have the meaning specified earlier; and the subscript i refers to occupation.

The women's index based on 1950 data for the 45 occupations is quite closely correlated with both the Duncan index for men and the NORC prestige ratings, the correlation coefficients being .93 and .87, respectively. The regression equation relating the women's index to Duncan's is:

$$_iW_{50} = 10.4 + .65I_i$$

Since the base set of 45 occupations is heavily weighted in favor of white-collar occupations (particularly professional and technical), a second test was made to determine whether this strong pattern of association would persist for three-digit blue-collar occupations. To do this, index values were computed for the 21 occupational categories under the classification "operative and kindred workers--manufacturing." For this sample, the correlation coefficient between the value of the index for women and the Duncan index was .92 and the regression equation was:

$$_iW_{50} = 4.00 + .60I_i$$

The similarity of the coefficients of I_i in the two equations serves as additional evidence of the close relationship between the two indices, Duncan's and ours.

The 1950 and 1960 women's indices are also quite closely related. The correlation coefficient between the two is .93, and if one eliminates the occupation for which estimates were based on a small number of sample cases (occupations containing less than 1,000 women in 1960), this coefficient increases to .96. Thus, one may reasonably conclude that the Duncan index, at least for women, is relatively stable over time.

It bears repeating that the Duncan index is not used in this report as a measure of socioeconomic status, since that is a concept usually associated with the role of adult men. Nevertheless, because this readily available and widely understood index provides a good measure of the vertical position of the occupations of both men and women based on income and education, it is used as a measure of the relative desirability or attractiveness of occupational assignments.

APPENDIX E

NONRESPONSE RATES

For most of the variables presented in this volume there were varying numbers of young women from whom information was not obtained, because either the response to the specific question was unclassifiable or no answer was given. Rarely is the number of nonresponses larger than 10 percent of the relevant total. This appendix presents a table with the major variables used in the report (for both blacks and whites), the definition of the appropriate universe, the number of women in that universe, and the number and proportion of responses that were not ascertained.

Variable name	Item number on interview schedule	Definition of universe	Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained		Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained	
				Total number (thousands)	Percent		Total number (thousands)	Percent
			WHITES			BLACKS		
Grade attending	2a	Enrolled	8,067	16	0.2	1,033	0	0.0
Whether attending school full- or part-time	2b	18-24, enrolled, nonmarried, no children	1,967	19	1.0	184	2	1.1
Highest year of school completed	4	Not enrolled	7,764	10	0.1	1,189	0	0.0
Effect of ending education	11	18-24, not enrolled, in labor force, with work experience, not college graduate	4,098	816	19.9	649	58	8.9
Extent of occupational training received outside regular school	13a,c;14a,d	18-24, not enrolled, with work experience	6,888	142	2.1	953	14	1.5
Type of occupational training received outside regular school	13b,14c	18-24, not enrolled, with work experience, had occupational training	2,890	178	6.2	370	19	5.1
Professional or trade certification	16	18-24, not enrolled, in labor force, with work experience	4,570	8	0.2	675	0	0.0
Type of high school	17c	14-17, enrolled in high school, nonmarried, no children	5,507	176	3.2	674	16	2.4
High school curriculum	17e	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children, attended high school	7,504	206	2.7	861	24	2.8
Clerical courses completed in high school	18	18-24, enrolled, nonmarried, no children, attended high school	1,967	21	1.1	184	0	0.0
Clerical courses completed in high school	18	14-17, enrolled in high school, nonmarried no children	5,507	193	3.5	674	20	3.0
Clerical courses completed in high school	18	18-24, not enrolled, with work experience, attended high school	6,591	15	0.2	843	3	0.4
High school subject enjoyed most	19a	14-17, enrolled in high school 2-4, nonmarried, no children	4,028	29	0.7	468	10	2.1
High school subject enjoyed least	20a	14-17, enrolled in high school 2-4, nonmarried, no children	4,028	38	0.9	468	10	2.1
Where homework is done	21b	14-17, enrolled in high school 2-4, nonmarried, no children	4,028	24	0.6	468	10	2.1
Favorite extracurricular activity	21e	14-17, enrolled in high school 2-4, participate in extracurricular activities, nonmarried, no children	3,019	28	0.9	311	9	2.9
Nonschool activity engaged in most	22	14-17, enrolled in high school 2-4, nonmarried, no children	4,028	35	0.9	468	14	3.0
Reaction to high school experience	23	14-17, enrolled in high school 2-4 or college 1, nonmarried, no children	4,059	33	0.8	470	10	2.1
Educational goals	29a	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children	5,719	57	1.0	779	10	1.3
Educational expectations	31	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, desire 2 or more years college, nonmarried, no children	3,997	60	1.5	557	10	1.8
Method of looking for work in past four weeks	37b	Enrolled, unemployed, looking for work	244	5	2.0	72	4	5.6
Date of last job	37g,38a	Not enrolled, married, out of labor force	2,256	133	5.9	197	7	3.6
Current occupation	39c	Enrolled, employed, nonmarried, no children	2,253	9	0.4	186	2	1.2
Occupation of last job	39c	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children, unemployed, with work experience	244	8	3.3	63	0	0.0
Current (last) occupation	39c,50c,51k	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	35	0.4	966	11	1.1
Comparison of Duncan Index scores of first and current jobs	39c,51k	Not enrolled, nonmarried, employed as wage and salary workers	2,431	84	3.4	381	25	6.6
Current industry	39d	Enrolled, employed, nonmarried, no children	2,253	4	0.2	186	1	0.5
Current (last) industry	39d,50d,51b	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	27	0.3	966	13	1.3
Length of service in current job	40b	Not enrolled, employed as wage or salary worker	4,198	46	1.1	585	6	1.0

Variable name	Item number on interview schedule	Definition of universe	Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained		Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained	
				Total number (thousands)	Percent		Total number (thousands)	Percent
			WHITES			BLACKS		
Cost of transportation to work	41d	Employed, travel by public transportation or auto	5,154	393	7.6	645	31	4.8
Mode of transportation to work	41b	Employed, travel by public transportation or auto	5,154	40	0.8	645	0	0.0
Hourly rate of pay	42a,b	18-24, not enrolled, worked at some time since January 1, 1967 as wage or salary worker	5,646	571	10.1	911	154	16.9
Weeks worked in 1967	44a	18-24, not enrolled, in labor force, with work experience	4,570	4	0.1	675	0	0.0
Weeks of unemployment in 1967	45b	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children, in labor force in survey week	2,497	4	0.2	249	0	0.0
Weeks out of labor force in 1967	45b,46b	18-24, not enrolled, with work experience	6,888	65	0.9	953	2	0.2
Reaction to hypothetical job offer outside local area	55	Not enrolled, nonmarried, employed as wage and salary workers	2,431	517	21.3	381	91	23.9
Reason child-care arrangements not necessary	59a	Not enrolled and employed or enrolled and employed 35 or more hours per week, have children, do not need child-care arrangements	348	134	38.5	76	25	32.9
Cost of child-care arrangements	59c	Employed except enrolled and employed less than 35 hours per week, use child-care arrangements	717	125	17.4	207	19	9.2
Type of child-care arrangements	59b	Employed except enrolled and employed less than 35 hours per week, use child-care arrangements	717	116	16.2	207	18	8.7
Type of occupation sought	60	Enrolled, unemployed	262	87	33.2	74	13	17.6
Hourly rate of pay required	61	Enrolled, unemployed	262	62	23.7	74	9	12.2
Number of hours per week sought	62	Enrolled, unemployed	262	80	30.5	74	18	24.3
Type of occupation sought	66b	Not enrolled, out of labor force, married, would accept job in local area	782	77	9.8	136	16	11.8
Hourly rate of pay required	66c	Not enrolled, out of labor force, married, would accept job in local area	782	51	6.5	136	21	15.4
Restrictions on job	66e	Not enrolled, out of labor force, married, would accept job in local area	782	4	0.5	136	1	0.7
Reason not looking for work	66f	Not enrolled, out of labor force, married, would accept job in local area	782	0	0.0	136	5	3.7
Whether plans to look for work in next six months	66g	Not enrolled, out of labor force, married, would accept job in local area	782	41	5.2	136	3	2.2
Hourly rate of pay	68a,b	18-24, not enrolled, at work survey week as wage or salary worker	3,833	248	6.5	523	58	11.1
Motivation to work	69	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	45	0.6	966	10	1.0
Motivation to work	69	18-24, not enrolled	7,394	132	1.8	1,060	34	3.2
Health	70a	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	19	0.2	966	3	0.3
Health	70a	18-24, not enrolled, with work experience	6,888	19	0.3	953	2	0.2
Plans for age 35	72a	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	4	0.0	966	0	0.0
Plans for age 35	72a	18-24, not enrolled	7,394	14	0.2	1,060	5	0.5
Reaction to hypothetical job offer in local area	54	Not enrolled, employed as wage or salary worker	4,198	626	14.9	585	109	18.6

Variable name	Item number on interview schedule	Definition of Universe	Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained		Universe number (thousands)	Not ascertained	
				Total number (thousands)	Percent		Total number (thousands)	Percent
			WHITES			BLACKS		
Attitude toward employment of mothers	76	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	24	0.3	966	4	0.4
Attitude toward employment of mothers	76	18-24, not enrolled, with work experience	6,888	44	0.6	953	2	0.2
Ideal age for girls to marry	77	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children	5,719	94	1.6	779	12	1.5
Husband's attitude toward wife's working	80	Not enrolled, married with children, out of labor force, white	1,832	139	7.6			
Total family income, 1967	88a	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children, does not live alone	5,690	442	7.8	776	64	8.2
Status of parents	95	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children	5,719	14	0.2	779	6	0.8
Type of residence at age 14	99	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	19	0.2	966	3	0.3
Occupation of head of household when respondent age 14	101a	18-24, enrolled, nonmarried, no children	1,967	76	3.9	184	3	1.6
Occupation of head of household when respondent age 14	101a	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children	5,719	112	2.0	779	25	3.2
Occupation of mother when respondent age 14	101b,c	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children, living with mother at age 14	4,209	15	0.4	389	14	3.6
Occupation of mother when respondent age 14	101b,c	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, lived with mother at age 14, nonmarried, no children	5,320	40	0.8	580	24	4.1
Exposure to reading materials at age 14	102	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	33	0.4	966	8	0.8
Parental employment experience in 1967	103,105,113, 119-121	14-17, enrolled, nonmarried, no children, with work experience, not heads of households	2,726	100	3.7	327	19	5.8
Family members with 13 or more years of education	104,106,108, 115-118	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children	5,719	669	11.7	779	175	22.5
Highest year of school completed by father	104,117,118	18-24, not enrolled, lived with father at age 14 and/or father living at time of survey	5,715	494	8.6	594	104	15.0
Highest year of school completed by father	104,117,118	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children, lived with father at age 14 and/or father living at time of survey	6,094	475	7.8	591	132	22.3
Highest year of school completed by mother	106,117,118	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children, lived with mother at age 14 and/or mother living at time of survey	7,535	319	4.2	896	66	7.4
Highest year of school completed by mother	106,117-118	18-24, not enrolled, lived with mother at age 14 and/or mother living at time of survey	6,975	452	6.5	903	83	9.1
Whether respondent is oldest child in family	107,112,113	Enrolled, nonmarried, no children	7,731	23	0.3	966	8	0.8
Whether respondent is oldest child in family	107,112,113	18-24, not enrolled	7,394	55	0.7	1,060	27	2.5
Highest year of school completed by oldest sibling	108,117,118	14-17, enrolled in elementary or high school, nonmarried, no children, have older sibling(s)	3,866	174	4.5	581	43	7.4
Sibling employment experience in 1967	113,119-121	14-17, enrolled, nonmarried, no children, with work experience, living with siblings 14 years of age or older	1,783	225	12.6	241	43	17.8

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Budget Bureau No. 41-R2423; Approval Expires December 31, 1973

FORM LGT-401
(12-1-67)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEYS

SURVEY OF WORK EXPERIENCE OF FEMALES 14-24

1968

NOTICE – Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Title 13, U.S. Code). It may be seen only by sworn Census employees and may be used only for statistical purposes.

1. Control No.

2. Line number of respondent ________

3. Name

4. Address

5. Interviewed by | Code

RECORD OF CALLS AND METHODS OF LOCATING RESPONDENT

Date	Time	Comments
1.	a.m. p.m.	
2.	a.m. p.m.	
3.	a.m. p.m.	
4.	a.m. p.m.	

	Successful	Unsuccessful
☐ New occupants		
☐ Neighbors		
☐ Apartment house mgr.		
☐ Post office		
☐ School		
☐ Other – *Specify*		

RECORD OF INTERVIEW

Interview time		Date completed	Comments
Began	Ended		
a.m. p.m.	a.m. p.m.		

NONINTERVIEW REASON

1 ☐ Temporarily absent

2 ☐ Unable to locate respondent – *Specify*

3 ☐ Refused

4 ☐ Other – *Specify*

TRANSCRIPTION FROM HOUSEHOLD RECORD CARD

Item 2 – Identification code

____

Item 13 – Marital status

1 ☐ Married spouse present
2 ☐ Married spouse absent
3 ☐ Widowed
4 ☐ Divorced
5 ☐ Separated
6 ☐ Never married

Item 15 – Age

____

Item 16 – Race

1 ☐ White
2 ☐ Negro
3 ☐ Other

Item 22 – Tenure

1 ☐ Owned or being bought
2 ☐ Rented
3 ☐ No cash rent

Items 23 – 25 – Land usage

1 ☐ A
2 ☐ B
3 ☐ C
4 ☐ D
5 ☐ E

IF RESPONDENT HAS MOVED, ENTER NEW ADDRESS

Number and street

City

County

State

ZIP code

1. EDUCATION AND TRAINING

1. Are you attending or enrolled in regular school?	1. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 2* 2 ☐ No — When were you last enrolled? ______ Month–Year } *SKIP to 4*
2a. What grade are you attending?	2a. 1 Elem 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 7* 2 High 1 2 3 4 3 College 1 2 3 4 5 6+
b. Are you enrolled as a full-time or part-time student?	b. 1 ☐ Full time 2 ☐ Part time x ☐
0 ☐ Respondent is 14 – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 7* 3. Since you turned 14, were you ever out of school for an entire year?	3. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 8* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item A*
4. What is the highest year of regular school you have completed?	4. x ☐ 0 None 0 – *SKIP to 34, page 10* 1 Elem 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 2 High 1 2 3 4 3 College 1 2 3 4 5 6+
5. How old were you when you last attended regular school?	5. x ☐ Age ______
6. Why would you say you decided to end your education at that time?	6. 0 ☐ Completed 4 or more years of college 1 ☐ Had to work 2 ☐ Couldn't afford college 3 ☐ Lack of ability 4 ☐ Disliked school 5 ☐ Marriage 6 ☐ Pregnancy 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______
7. Between the time you turned 14 and ____ (Age mentioned in 5), were you ever out of school for an entire school year or more?	7. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 8* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item A*
8. How old were you? (If more than once, ask about most recent time.)	8. x ☐ Age ______
9. Why were you out of school at that time?	9.
10. Why did you return to school?	10.
CHECK ITEM A	1 ☐ Respondent is a college graduate – *SKIP to 13a* 2 ☐ Respondent is enrolled in school – *SKIP to 17a, page 4* 3 ☐ All others – *ASK 11a*
11a. Do you feel that not having more education has hurt you in any way?	11a. x ☐ 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
b. Why do you feel this way?	b.
12a. If you could, would you like to get more education or training?	12a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 13a*
b. What kind of courses or training would you like to take?	b. 1 ☐ Technical (vocational) training – *Specify type* ______ 2 ☐ Complete high school 3 ☐ Go to college 4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______
c. Do you expect that you actually will get this education or training?	c. 1 ☐ Yes When? ______ 2 ☐ No Why not? ______ 3 ☐ Don't know

I. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued	
13a. Aside from regular school, did you ever take a full-time program lasting two weeks or more at a training course sponsored by an employer?	**13a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 14a*
b. What type of training did you take?	**b.**
c. How long did this training last?	**c.** Months ________
d. How many hours per week did you spend on this training?	**d.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 3 ☐ 10 – 14 5 ☐ 20 or more 2 ☐ 5 – 9 4 ☐ 15 – 19
e. Did you finish or complete this course?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to g* 2 ☐ No – *ASK f* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 14a*
f. Why didn't you complete the program?	**f.**
g. Do you use this training on your present (last) job?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Never worked
14a. Aside from regular school, did you ever take any commercial, vocational, or skill training, such as typing, practical nursing, cosmetology, or anything else, not counting on-the-job training given informally?	**14a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 15a*
b. Why did you decide to get more training?	**b.**
c. What type of training did you take?	**c.**
d. How long did this training last?	**d.** Months ________
e. How many hours per week did you spend on this training?	**e.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 3 ☐ 10 – 14 5 ☐ 20 or more 2 ☐ 5 – 9 4 ☐ 15 – 19
f. Did you finish or complete the program?	**f.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to h* 2 ☐ No – *ASK g* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 15a*
g. Why didn't you complete the program?	**g.**
h. Do you use this training on your present (last) job?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Never worked
15a. Since you stopped going to school full time, have you taken any additional general courses in a regular school such as English, math, science, or art?	**15a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 16a*
b. Why did you decide to get more education?	**b.** x ☐
c. What type of course did you take?	**c.**
d. How long did this course last?	**d.** Months ________
e. How many hours per week did you spend on this course?	**e.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 3 ☐ 10 – 14 5 ☐ 20 or more 2 ☐ 5 – 9 4 ☐ 15 – 19
f. Did you finish or complete this course?	**f.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to h* 2 ☐ No – *ASK g* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 16a*
g. Why didn't you complete this course?	**g.**
h. Do you use this education on your present (last) job?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Never worked

I. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued

16a. Have you ever obtained a certificate required for practicing any profession or trade, such as teacher, registered nurse, practical nurse, or beautician?	**16a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 16b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 17a*
b. What type of certificate was it?	**b.**
c. Is this certificate currently valid?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

II. HIGH SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

x ☐ Never attended high school – *SKIP to 34, page 10*

17a. What is the name of the high school you attend (last attended)?	**17a.**
b. What is this high school's address?	**b.** Street City County State ZIP code
c. Is this school public or private?	**c.** 1 ☐ Public 2 ☐ Private
d. In what years have you been (were you) enrolled there?	**d.** From ______ To ______ Month-year Month-Year
e. What kind of curriculum are (were) you enrolled in (during your last year in high school) – is (was) it vocational, commercial, college preparatory or general?	**e.** 1 ☐ Vocational ⟶ *What are you specializing (did you specialize) in?* 2 ☐ Commercial 3 ☐ College Preparatory 4 ☐ General
18a. Are you taking (did you take) any courses in typing or shorthand in high school?	**18a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 18b – c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item B*
b. What courses are you taking (did you take)?	**b.** 1 ☐ Typing 2 ☐ Shorthand 3 ☐ Both
c. How many years have you taken (typing, shorthand)?	**c.** Typing ______ Shorthand ______

CHECK ITEM B	1 ☐ Respondent has completed one or more years of college (Q2 or 4) – *SKIP to 24a, page 6* 2 ☐ Respondent has completed less than one year of high school – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 7* 3 ☐ All others – *ASK 19a*

19a. What high school subject do (did) you enjoy the most?	**19a.** x ☐ 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 20a*
b. What is the main reason you enjoy (enjoyed) . . .?	**b.** 1 ☐ Interested 2 ☐ Find it easy 3 ☐ Do well in it 4 ☐ Prepares for future job or career 5 ☐ Prepares for homemaking ☐ Other – *Specify* ______
20a. What high school subject do (did) you dislike the most?	**20a.** 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 21a*
b. What is the main reason you dislike (disliked) . . .?	**b.** 1 ☐ Difficult; hard work 2 ☐ Felt it a waste of time 3 ☐ Do poorly in it 4 ☐ Boring ☐ Other – *Specify* ______

II. HIGH SCHOOL EXPERIENCE – Continued

21a. IN YOUR LAST FULL YEAR IN HIGH SCHOOL, how many hours per week, on the average, did you spend doing your homework, at home or anywhere else?	**21a.** 0 ☐ None 1 ☐ 1 – 4 2 ☐ 5 – 9 3 ☐ 10 – 14 4 ☐ 15 – 19 5 ☐ 20 or more
b. Where did you normally do most of your homework?	**b.** 1 ☐ School library, study hall or homeroom 2 ☐ At home 3 ☐ At friend's home 4 ☐ Other – *Specify*____________
c. Were there any conditions at this place which made it hard for you to study?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK d* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to e*
d. What were these conditions?	**d.** 1 ☐ Noise (distractions) 2 ☐ Lacks necessary facilities (desk, room, etc.) 3 ☐ Other – *Specify*____________
e. IN YOUR LAST FULL YEAR OF HIGH SCHOOL, did you take part in any extra-curricular activities at school, such as sports, dramatics, publications, music, or clubs?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK f* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 22*
f. How many hours per week, on the average, did you spend on these activities?	**f.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 2 ☐ 5 – 9 3 ☐ 10 – 14 4 ☐ 15 – 19 5 ☐ 20 or more
g. What was your favorite extra-curricular activity?	**g.** 1 ☐ Sports 2 ☐ Publications 3 ☐ Dramatics 4 ☐ Music 5 ☐ Other clubs 6 ☐ Other – *Specify*____________
22. When you were not involved in high school activities or studying, what activity took up most of your extra time during your last full high school year?	**22.** 1 ☐ Non-school related sports 2 ☐ Hobby 3 ☐ Reading 4 ☐ Work for pay 5 ☐ Helping at home 6 ☐ Other – *Specify*____________
23. How do (did) you feel about your high school experience?	**23.** Do (did) you — 1 ☐ like it very much? 2 ☐ like it fairly well? 3 ☐ dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ dislike it very much?

III COLLEGE EXPERIENCE

x ☐ Respondent has never attended college (Q. 2 or 4) – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 7*

ASK FOR EACH SCHOOL ATTENDED

24a. What are the names of all the colleges you have attended?

Name of college	b. When were you enrolled there? From – Month/Year	b. When were you enrolled there? To – Month/Year	c. Where is this school located? City	c. Where is this school located? State
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				

d. What degree did you receive? (If more than one, record the most recent)

d. ____________________

0 ☐ Did not receive degree – *SKIP to g*

e. In what field did you receive your degree?

e. ____________________

f. Why did you decide to major in . . . (field of study mentioned in 24e)?

f.
1 ☐ Interested in it
2 ☐ Do well in it
3 ☐ Advised to do so
4 ☐ Good job possibilities
5 ☐ Prepare for homemaking
6 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

g. What is (was) the full-time tuition per year at (most recent school given in 24a)?

g. $ ____________________

h. Do (did) you have a scholarship, fellowship, assistantship, or other type of financial aid while enrolled at (most recent school given in 24a)?

h. 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ Scholarship or fellowship
- 3 ☐ Assistantship (teaching, research, etc.)
- 4 ☐ Loan
- 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

6 ☐ No – *SKIP to j*

i. How much is (was) it?

i. ____________________

j. Why did you decide to continue your education beyond high school?

j.
1 ☐ College degree necessary for her work
2 ☐ College degree necessary for success
3 ☐ Wanted more education
4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

x ☐ Respondent has not completed one year of college (Q. 2 or 4) – *Skip to 30, page 8*

25a. What field of study in college do (did) you enjoy the most?

25a. ____________________

1 ☐ None – *SKIP to 26a*

b. What is the main reason you enjoy (enjoyed). . .?

b.
1 ☐ Interested in it
2 ☐ Do well in it
3 ☐ Find it easy
4 ☐ Prepares for future job or career
5 ☐ Prepares for homemaking
6 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

III. COLLEGE EXPERIENCE – Continued

26a. What field of study in college do (did) you dislike the most?	**26a.** ____________________ 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 27*
b. What is the main reason you dislike (disliked). . .?	**b.** 1 ☐ Difficult 2 ☐ Felt it a waste of time 3 ☐ Does poorly in it 4 ☐ Boring 5 ☐ Other – *Specify*____________________
27. How do (did) you feel about your college experience?	**27.** Do (did) you –– 1 ☐ like it very much? 2 ☐ dislike it very much? 3 ☐ like it fairly well? 4 ☐ dislike it somewhat?
x ☐ Respondent is attending college (Q. 2) – *SKIP to 30* **28.** Would you like to receive more education?	**28.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 30* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 34, page 10*

IV. EDUCATIONAL GOALS OF THOSE ENROLLED IN SCHOOL

CHECK ITEM C	1 ☐ Respondent is enrolled in school (Q.1) – *ASK 29a* 2 ☐ Other – *SKIP to 34, page 9*

29a. How much more education would you like to get?
(If "None," mark current grade and follow appropriate skip pattern)

High School

0 ☐ Less than high school *(ASK b)*

1 ☐ 1 year }
2 ☐ 2 years } *ASK b*
3 ☐ 3 years }
4 ☐ 4 years – *SKIP to c*

College

5 ☐ 2 years (complete junior college or equivalent }
6 ☐ 4 years (graduate from 4-year college) }
7 ☐ 6 years (obtain Master's degree or equivalent) } *SKIP to d*
8 ☐ 7 + years (obtain Ph. D. or professional degree) (M.D., Law, etc.) }

b. Why don't you want to complete high school?	**b.** ____________________
c. What do you expect to do when you leave school?	**c.** 1 ☐ Go to work 2 ☐ Get married 3 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________ } *SKIP to Check Box after 33c*
d. What college would you like to attend?	**d.** Name ____________________ Location (City and State) ____________________ 9 ☐ Undecided
e. What field of study would you like to take in college?	**e.** ____________________ 99 ☐ Don't know – *SKIP to 31*
f. Why would you like to go into this field of study?	**f.** 1 ☐ I'm interested in it, I enjoy it 2 ☐ It prepares for vocation that pays well, is secure 3 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________ } *SKIP to 31*

IV. EDUCATIONAL GOALS OF THOSE ENROLLED IN SCHOOL – *Continued*

30. How much more college would you like to get?	**30.** 5 ☐ 2 years (complete junior college or equivalent) 6 ☐ 4 years (graduate from four-year college) 7 ☐ 6 years (obtain Master's degree or equivalent) 8 ☐ 7+ years (obtain Ph.D. or professional degree) (M.D., Law, etc.)

31. As things now stand, how much more education do you think you will actually get?

High School	College
1 ☐ 1 year	5 ☐ 2 years (complete Junior College or equivalent)
2 ☐ 2 years	6 ☐ 4 years (graduate from 4-year college)
3 ☐ 3 years	7 ☐ 6 years (obtain Master's degree or equivalent)
4 ☐ 4 years	8 ☐ 7 + years (obtain Ph.D. or professional degree) (M.D., Law, etc.)

CHECK ITEM D

Amount recorded in 31 is:

1 ☐ Same or greater than amount given in 29a or 30 – *ASK 32a*

2 ☐ Less than amount given in 29a or 30 – *ASK 32b*

32a. How will you pay for this additional education?	**32a.** 1 ☐ Scholarship 2 ☐ Loan 3 ☐ Parents 4 ☐ Work 5 ☐ Don't know, not sure 6 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______________________ *SKIP to 33a*
b. Why do you think you will actually get less education than you would like?	**b.** 1 ☐ Too expensive; lack of sufficient funds 2 ☐ Difficulty in getting into college 3 ☐ Family obligations 4 ☐ Have to go to work 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______________________
33a. What do you expect to do when you complete your education?	**33a.** 1 ☐ Go to work – *ASK c* 2 ☐ Get married – *ASK b* 3 ☐ Other – *Specify* *GO to Check Box after 33c*
b. Do you expect to work when you are first married?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK c* 2 ☐ No – *GO to Check Box after 33c* 9 ☐ Don't know
c. What kind of work would you like to do?	**c.**

While answering Section IV was another person present?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Go to 34*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

V. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

34. What were you doing most of LAST WEEK; working, going to school, keeping house or something else?

1 ☐ WK – Working – *SKIP to 35b* →
2 ☐ J – With a job but not at work
3 ☐ LK – Looking for work
4 ☐ S – Going to school
5 ☐ KH – Keeping house
6 ☐ U – Unable to work – *SKIP to 38a*
7 ☐ OT – Other – *Specify*

____

____

35c. Do you USUALLY work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

1 ☐ Yes – What is the reason you worked less than 35 hours LAST WEEK?

2 ☐ No – What is the reason you USUALLY work less than 35 hours a week?

(Mark the appropriate reason)

01 ☐ Slack work
02 ☐ Material shortage
03 ☐ Plant or machine repair
04 ☐ New job started during week
05 ☐ Job terminated during week
06 ☐ Could find only part-time work
07 ☐ Labor dispute
08 ☐ Did not want full-time work
09 ☐ Full-time work week under 35 hours
10 ☐ Attends school
11 ☐ Holiday (legal or religious)
12 ☐ Bad weather
13 ☐ Own illness
14 ☐ Illness of family member
15 ☐ On vacation
16 ☐ Too busy with housework
17 ☐ Personal business
18 ☐ Other – *Specify*

____

____

(If entry in 35c, SKIP to 39a and enter job worked at last week)

35a. Did you do any work at all LAST WEEK, not counting work around the house?

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 36a*

b. How many hours did you work LAST WEEK at all jobs? __________

CHECK ITEM E

Respondent worked –

1 ☐ 49 hours or more–*SKIP to 39a and enter job worked at last week*

2 ☐ 1 – 34 hours – *ASK c*

3 ☐ 35 – 48 hours–*ASK d-e*

d. Did you lose any time or take any time off from work LAST WEEK for any reason such as illness, holiday, or slack work?

1 ☐ Yes – How many hours did you take off? ______

2 ☐ No

NOTE – Correct item 35b if lost time not already deducted; if item 35b is reduced below 35 hours, ask 35e, otherwise skip to 39a.

e. Did you work any overtime or at more than one job LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes – How many extra hours did you work? ____

2 ☐ No

NOTE – Correct item 35b if extra hours not already included and skip to 39a

(If "J" in 34 SKIP to 36b)

36a. Did you have a job or business from which you were temporarily absent or on layoff last week?

1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b*

x ☐ No – *SKIP to 37a*

b. Why were you absent from work LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Own illness
2 ☐ Illness of family member
3 ☐ On vacation
4 ☐ Bad weather
5 ☐ Labor dispute
6 ☐ New job to begin within 30 days – *ASK 37c and 37d(2)*
7 ☐ Temporary layoff (less than 30 days) } *ASK 37d (3)*
8 ☐ Indefinite layoff (more than 30 days or no definite recall date) } *ASK 37d (3)*
9 ☐ School Interfered
10 ☐ Too busy with housework, personal business
11 ☐ Other – *Specify*

____

c. Are you getting wages or salary for any of the time off LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Self-employed

d. Do you usually work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

(GO to 39a and enter job held last week.)

Notes

V. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

(If "LK" in item 34, SKIP to 37b)

37a. Have you been looking for work during the past 4 weeks?

x ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 1 ☐ No – SKIP to 38a

b. What have you been doing in the last 4 weeks to find work?

(Mark all methods used; do not read list)

- x ☐ Nothing – *SKIP to 38a*
- 0 ☐ Checked with school employment service (or counselor)
- 1 ☐ Checked with State employment agency
- 2 ☐ Checked with private employment agency
- 3 ☐ Checked directly with employer
- 4 ☐ Placed or answered newspaper ads
- 5 ☐ Checked with friends or relatives
- 6 ☐ Other – *Specify – For example, MDTA, Union, or professional register, etc.*

____

c. Why did you start looking for work? Was it because you lost or quit a job at that time or was there some other reason?

- 1 ☐ Lost job
- 2 ☐ Quit job
- 3 ☐ Left school
- 4 ☐ Wanted temporary work
- 5 ☐ Other – *Specify*_________________________________

d. 1. How many weeks have you been looking for work?
2. How many weeks ago did you start looking for a job?
3. How many weeks ago were you laid off?

Number of weeks ____________________

e. Have you been looking for full-or part-time work?

1 ☐ Full-time 2 ☐ Part-time

f. Is there any reason why you could not take a job LAST WEEK?

- 1 ☐ Yes – *Mark reason*
  - 1 ☐ Needed at home
  - 2 ☐ Temporary illness
  - 3 ☐ School
  - 4 ☐ Already has job
  - 5 ☐ Other – *Specify*___________________________
- 2 ☐ No

g. When did you last work at a regular full-or part-time job or business lasting two consecutive weeks or more?

1 ☐ 1963 or later } *SKIP to 39a and enter last job*

Month________________ Year________________

2 ☐ Before 1963 – *SKIP to 39a and enter last job*

3 ☐ Never worked 2 weeks or more
4 ☐ Never worked at all } *SKIP to 44a, page 14*

38a. When did you last work at a regular full- or part-time job or business lasting two consecutive weeks or more? x ☐

1 ☐ 1963 or later

Month________________ Year ________________

2 ☐ Before 1963

3 ☐ Never worked 2 weeks or more
4 ☐ Never worked at all } *SKIP to 44a, page 14*

b. On this job, did you usually work 35 hours or more per week?

- 1 ☐ 35 or more
- 2 ☐ Less than 35

c. Why did you leave that job?

- 1 ☐ To get married
- 2 ☐ Husband wanted her to quit
- 3 ☐ Husband transferred; moved
- 4 ☐ Own health
- 5 ☐ Pregnancy
- 6 ☐ Health of family member
- 7 ☐ Devote more time to family
- 8 ☐ School
- 9 ☐ Seasonal job completed
- 10 ☐ Slack work or business conditions
- 11 ☐ Temporary nonseasonal job completed
- 12 ☐ Unsatisfactory work arrangement (hours, pay, etc.)
- 13 ☐ Other – *Specify*

____

39a. For whom did you work? (Name of company, organization, or other employer)

b. Where is . . . located?

City________________________________

State_______________________________

c. What kind of work were you doing? (For example: teaching, waitress, sales clerk, typist, etc.) ☐☐☐

d. What kind of business or industry is this? (For example: TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, State Labor Department, etc.) ☐☐☐

e. Were you –

1 ☐ P – an employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission?
2 ☐ G – a GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, County, or local)? } ASK 40

3 ☐ O – SELF-EMPLOYED in OWN business, professional practice, or farm?
Is this business incorporated?
1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
4 ☐ WP–Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm? } *SKIP to 40b*

V. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

40a. How did you find out about this job?	**40a.** 0 ☐ Checked with school employment agency (or counselor) 1 ☐ Checked with State employment agency 2 ☐ Checked with private employment agency 3 ☐ Checked directly with employer 4 ☐ Placed or answered newspaper ads 5 ☐ Checked with friends or relatives 6 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
b. When did you start working at this job or business?	**b.** Year________ or (if 1967) Month________
CHECK ITEM F	1. ☐ Respondent has not worked since January 1967 – *SKIP to 44a, page 14* 2 ☐ All others – *ASK 41a*
41a. How much time does it usually take you to travel from your house to your job (entry in 39a)?	**41a.** ☐☐☐
b. What means of transportation do you usually use to get to work? *Mark as many boxes as apply.*	**b.** 1 ☐ Own auto – *ASK 41c* 2 ☐ Ride with someone else } *ASK 41d* 3 ☐ Bus or streetcar } *ASK 41d* 4 ☐ Subway or elevated } *ASK 41d* 5 ☐ Railroad } *ASK 41d* 6 ☐ Taxicab } *ASK 41d* 7 ☐ Walked only – *SKIP to Check Item G* 8 ☐ Other means – *Specify* ________ ________ *SKIP to Check Item G*
41c. 1. What is the total cost of any parking fees or tolls you have to pay (round trip)?	**41c.** 1. X ☐ 0 ☐ No cost $________ per ________
2. How many miles do you go by car (round trip)? ☐ Only box 1 marked in 41b – *SKIP to Check Item G* ☐ Box 1 and any of boxes 2–6 marked in 41b – *ASK 41d*	2. ________Miles
d. What is the total cost of the round trip by (means of transportation given in b)?	**d.** 0 ☐ No cost $________ per ________

V. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

CHECK ITEM G

1 ☐ "P" or "G" in item 39e – *ASK 42a*
2 ☐ "O" or "WP" in item 39e – *SKIP to Check Item H*

42a. How much do (did) you earn at your (present, last) job?	**42a.** $ ____________ per ____________
b. How many hours a week do (did) you usually work at this job?	**b.** Hours____________
c. Do (did) you receive extra pay when you work(ed) over a certain number of hours a week?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 42d* 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ No – compensatory time only 4 ☐ Never work overtime } *SKIP to Check Item H*
d. After how many hours do (did) you receive extra pay?	**d.** 1 ☐ Hours per day______ 2 ☐ Hours per week ______
e. For all hours worked over (entry in 42d) per week, are (were) you paid straight time, time and one-half, double time, or is there some other arrangement? *Mark as many as apply and explain.*	**e.** 1 ☐ Straight time 2 ☐ Time and one-half 3 ☐ Double time 4 ☐ Compensating time off 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________

CHECK ITEM H

1 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A (WK in 34, or "Yes" in 35a or 36a) and entry in 40b is before January 1967 – *ASK 43a*
2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A and entry in 40b is January 1967 or later – *SKIP to 43c*
3 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 44a*

43a. Have you ever done any other kind of work for (name of employer in 39a)?	**43a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to g* x ☐
b. What kind of work were you doing a year ago at this time?	**b.** ____________ 1 ☐ Same as current job – *SKIP to 43g*
c. Were you working a year ago at this time?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK d* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 44a*
d. For whom did you work then?	**d.**
e. What kind of business was this?	**e.**
f. What kind of work were you doing?	**f.**
g. Does the work you do now require more skill than the work you were doing a year ago?	**g.** 1 ☐ More 2 ☐ Less 3 ☐ The same amount
h. Do you have more responsibility in the work you are doing now than in the work you were doing a year ago?	**h.** 1 ☐ More 2 ☐ Less 3 ☐ The same amount

Notes

VI. PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE

44a. In how many different weeks did you work either full or part-time in 1967 (not counting work around the house)? Count any week where you did any work at all. *(Include paid vacations and paid sick leave.)*	**44a.** x ☐ None – *SKIP to 46a* Weeks ________
b. Were these weeks during summer vacation from school or during the school year?	**b.** 1 ☐ Summer vacation only 2 ☐ School year only 3 ☐ Both 4 ☐ Respondent not in school 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
c. During the weeks that you worked in 1967, how many hours per week did you usually work? *Specify actual number.*	**c.** Number of hours ________
CHECK ITEM I	1 ☐ 52 weeks in 44a – *ASK 45a* 2 ☐ 1 – 51 weeks in 44a – *SKIP to 45b*
45a. Did you lose any full weeks of work in 1967 because you were on layoff from a job, lost a job, or for some other reason?	**45a.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks ________ *Adjust item 44a and SKIP to 45c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item K*
b. You say you worked (entry in 44a) weeks in 1967. In any of the remaining (52 weeks minus entry in 44a) weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?	**b.** x ☐ 1 ☐ Yes– How many weeks? ________ 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 47*
c. Were all of these weeks in one stretch?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes, 1 2 ☐ No, 2 3 ☐ No, 3+
d. Were these weeks during summer vacation from school or during the school year?	**d.** 1 ☐ Summer vacation only 2 ☐ School year only 3 ☐ Both 4 ☐ Respondent not in school ☐ Other – *Specify* ________ *SKIP to 46d*
46a. Even though you did not work in 1967, did you spend any time trying to find work or on layoff from a job?	**46a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item J*
b. How many different weeks (if any) were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?	**b.** Weeks ________ 00 ☐ None
c. Were these weeks during summer vacation from school or during the school year?	**c.** 1 ☐ Summer vacation only 2 ☐ School year only 3 ☐ Both 4 ☐ Respondent not in school ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
d. What did you do to try to find work?	**d.** 0 ☐ Checked with school employment service (or counselor) 1 ☐ Checked with State employment agency 2 ☐ Checked with private employment agency 3 ☐ Checked directly with employer 4 ☐ Placed or answered newspaper ads 5 ☐ Checked with friends and relatives 6 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________

VI. PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE – *Continued*

CHECK ITEM J	1 ☐ All weeks of 1967 are accounted for – *SKIP to Check Item K* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK 47*
47. Now let me see. During 1967 there were about (52 weeks minus entries in 44a, 45a, 45b or 46b) weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work during these weeks?	**47.** 1 ☐ Didn't want to work 2 ☐ Ill or disabled and unable to work 3 ☐ Birth of child 4 ☐ In school 5 ☐ Too busy keeping house 6 ☐ Other – *Specify* __________ x ☐
CHECK ITEM K	1 ☐ Respondent has not worked at a job since January 1967 – *SKIP to Check Item L* Respondent has worked at a job since January 1967 – 2 ☐ "O" in 39e – *ASK 48* 3 ☐ "P," in "G," or "WP" in 39e – *SKIP to 49*
48. Did you work for anyone (else) for wages or salary in 1967?	**48.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 49* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item L*
49. In 1967, for how many different employers did you work?	**49.** Number of employers __________ 0 ☐ Did not work in 1967
x ☐ Respondent never attended a full year of high school – *SKIP to Check Item L*	
50a. During your last full year in high school, did you hold a regular job that lasted two weeks or more (not a summer job)?	**50a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item L*
b. For whom did you work?	**b.**
c. What kind of work did you do? *Specify kind of work.*	**c.** ☐☐☐ x ☐ Same as current (last) job – *SKIP to Check Item L*
d. What kind of business or industry is that?	**d.** ☐☐☐
e. Where is (was) this job located?	**e.** City __________ State __________
f. How did you find this job?	**f.** 0 ☐ Checked with school employment service (or counselor) 1 ☐ Checked with State employment agency 2 ☐ Checked with private employment agency 3 ☐ Checked directly with employer 4 ☐ Placed or answered newspaper ads 5 ☐ Checked with relatives or friends 6 ☐ Other – *Specify* __________
CHECK ITEM L	Respondent is enrolled in school this year and – 1 ☐ In Labor Force Group A, usually works 35 hours or more a week – *ASK 51a* 2 ☐ All others in Labor Force Group A – *SKIP to 69, page 20* 3 ☐ In Labor Force Group B – *SKIP to 60, page 19* 4 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 66a, page 20* 5 ☐ Respondent is not enrolled in school – *ASK 51a*
51a. Now I'd like to know about the first job at which you worked at least one month after you stopped going to school full time. For whom did you work?	**51a.** x ☐ Same as current (last) job – *SKIP to Check Item M, page 17*
b. What kind of business or industry was that?	**b.** ☐☐☐

VI. PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE – Continued

51c. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm.	**51c.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
d. Where was that job located?	**d.** City or county State
e. How did you find this job?	**e.** 1 ☐ Checked with school employment service (or counselor) 2 ☐ Checked with State employment agency 3 ☐ Checked with private employment agency 4 ☐ Checked directly with employer 5 ☐ Placed or answered newspaper ads 6 ☐ Checked with relatives and friends 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. When did you START working at that job?	**g.** Month Year
h. When did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Month Year
i. Then you worked there for ("h" minus "g") ________ years, is this correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary
j. What kind of work were you doing WHEN YOU STARTED TO WORK THERE?	**j.** ☐☐☐
k. What kind of work were you doing JUST BEFORE YOU LEFT THIS JOB?	**k.** ☐☐☐
l. How did you happen to leave this job?	**l.**

Notes

VII. WORK ATTITUDES AND JOB PLANS

CHECK ITEM M

1 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A – *ASK 52*
2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group B – *SKIP to 60, page 19*
3 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 66a, page 20*

LABOR FORCE GROUP A

52. How do you feel about the job you have now?
Respondent's comments ____________

52. Do you –
1 ☐ Like it very much?
2 ☐ Like it fairly well?
3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat?
4 ☐ Dislike it very much?
(Enter respondent's comments)

X ☐

53a. What are the things you like best about your job? – *After the respondent replies, ASK "Anything else?"*

1. ____________
2. ____________
3. ____________

b. What are the things about your job that you don't like? – *After the respondent replies, ASK "Anything else?"*

1. ____________
2. ____________
3. ____________

54. Suppose someone IN THIS AREA offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?
If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.
Respondent's comments ____________

54.
$ ________ per ________
1 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay
2 ☐ I would take a steady job at the same or less pay

☐ Respondent married – *SKIP to 56*

55. What if this job were in SOME OTHER PART OF THE COUNTRY. What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?

Respondent's comments ____________

55. $ ________ per ________
1 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay
2 ☐ I would take a steady job at the same or less pay

X ☐

☐ "O" checked in 39e – *SKIP to 58a*

56. If for some reason you were permanently to lose YOUR PRESENT JOB TOMORROW what would you do?

X ☐

56. 1 ☐ Look for work – *ASK 57a*
2 ☐ Take another job I know about
3 ☐ Stay at home
4 ☐ Return to school; get training
SKIP to 58a
☐ Other – *Specify* ____________ *SKIP to 58a*

Notes

VII. WORK ATTITUDES AND JOB PLANS – *Continued*

57a. What kind of work would you look for?	**57a.** ☐☐☐ ________________
b. How would you go about looking for this kind of work?	**b.** 0 ☐ Check with school employment service (or counselor) 1 ☐ Check with State employment agency 2 ☐ Check with private employment agency 3 ☐ Check directly with employer 4 ☐ Place or answer newspaper ads 5 ☐ Check with friends and relatives 6 ☐ Other – *Specify*________________
c. Are there any particular companies in this area where you would apply? – *List names* 1.________________ 2.________________ 3.________________	**c.** 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 58a* 1 ☐ Companies of a particular type Number of companies____________
d. Why do you mention these particular companies?	**d.**
58a. How long do you think you will continue to work at your present job?	**58a.** 1 ☐ Less than 1 year } 2 ☐ 1 – 4 years } *ASK b* 3 ☐ 5 years or longer } 4 ☐ As long as I can } *SKIP to 59a* 5 ☐ Don't know }
b. What do you plan to do immediately after you stop working at your present job?	**b.** 1 ☐ Take another job I know about } 2 ☐ Look for work } *ASK c – d* 3 ☐ Just stay home } 4 ☐ Go to school, get additional training } *SKIP to 59a* 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* }
c. What kind of work do you think you will (be doing) (look for)?	**c.** ☐☐☐ ________________
d. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time work?	**d.** 1 ☐ Part time 2 ☐ Full time
☐ Respondent has no children in the household – *SKIP to 69, page 20*	
59a. Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your child(ren) while you are working?	**59a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b and c* 2 ☐ No – Why not? ________________ *SKIP to 69, page 20*
b. What arrangement have you made?	Child is cared for: X ☐ **b.** 1 ☐ In own home by relative 2 ☐ In own home by nonrelatives 3 ☐ In relative's home 4 ☐ In nonrelative's home 5 ☐ At school or group care center (day care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, settlement house, etc.)
c. What is the cost of these child care arrangements?	**c.** 0 ☐ No cost X ☐ $__________ per __________ *SKIP to 69, page 20*

VII. WORK ATTITUDES AND JOB PLANS – Continued

LABOR FORCE GROUP B **60.** What kind of work are you looking for?	**60.**
61. How much would the job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?	**61.** $ ____ per ____ 9 ☐ Don't know
62. How many hours per week do you want to work?	**62.** Hours ____
63a. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking a job?	**63a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 64a*
b. What are these restrictions? ____	
☐ Respondent has no children in the household. *SKIP to 65a* **64a.** Will it be necessary for you to make any special arrangements for the care of your child(ren), if you find a job?	**64a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – Why not? ____ *SKIP to 65a*
b. What arrangements will you make?	**b.** Child will be cared for: 1 ☐ In own home by relative 2 ☐ In own home by nonrelative 3 ☐ In relative's home 4 ☐ In nonrelative's home 5 ☐ At school or group care center (day care center, nursery school, after-school center, settlement house, etc.) 6 ☐ Don't know
☐ Respondent is attending school – *SKIP to 69* **65a.** What do you expect to be doing five years from now – working or something else?	x ☐ **65a.** 1 ☐ Working – *ASK b – c* 2 ☐ Staying home 3 ☐ Go to school, get additional training 4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____ *SKIP to 69, page 20* 5 ☐ Don't know – *SKIP to 69, page 20*
b. What kind of work do you think you will be doing?	**b.**
c. Do you think it will be part time or full time?	**c.** 1 ☐ Full time 2 ☐ Part time *SKIP to 69, page 20*

Notes

VII. WORK ATTITUDES AND JOB PLANS – Continued

LABOR FORCE GROUP C	
66a. If you were offered a job by some employer IN THIS AREA, do you think you would take it?	**66a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – g* 2 ☐ It depends. *Specify "on what" and ASK 66b – g* 3 ☐ No – *SKIP to 67*
b. What kind of work would it have to be?	**b.**
c. What would the wage or salary have to be? *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.*	**c.** $ ____________ per ____________
d. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking the job?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK* e 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to f*
e. What are these restrictions?	
f. Why would you say you are not looking for such a job now?	**f.**
g. Do you expect to look for work within the next six months?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
x ☐ Respondent has no children in the household – *SKIP to 68a* **67.** Would it be necessary for you to make any special arrangements for the care of your child(ren), if you were to take a job?	**67.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – Why not? 3 ☐ Don't know
x ☐ Respondent is attending school – *SKIP to 69* **68a.** What do you expect to be doing five years from now – working or something else?	**68a.** 1 ☐ Working – *ASK b – c* 2 ☐ Staying home *SKIP to 69* 3 ☐ Go to school, get additional training *SKIP to 69* 4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________ *SKIP to 69* 5 ☐ Don't know *SKIP to 69*
b. What kind of work do you think you will be doing?	**b.**
c. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time work?	**c.** 1 ☐ Full time 2 ☐ Part time
69. What would you say is more important to you in deciding what kind of work you want to go into, good wages or liking the work?	**69.** 1 ☐ Liking the work 2 ☐ Good wages

While answering Section VII was another person present?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *GO to 70*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

VIII. HEALTH

70a. Does your health or physical condition limit your activities or the kind of work you can do?	**70a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 70b – d* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 71*
b. What physical or health problem do you have?	
c. In what way are your activities limited?	
d. How long have you been limited this way?	**d.** Months ________ Years ________
x ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 72a* **71a.** Does your husband's health or physical condition limit his activities or the kind of work he can do?	**71a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – d* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 72a*
b. What physical or health problem does he have?	
c. In what way are his activities limited?	
d. How long has he been limited this way?	**d.** Months ________ Years ________

IX. FUTURE PLANS

72a. Now I would like to talk to you about your future plans. What would you like to to be doing when you are 35 years old?	**72a.** 1 ☐ Working – What kind of work? ☐☐☐ ________ *(SKIP to 73)* 2 ☐ Same as present (last) job } *SKIP to Check Box after 75* 3 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to Check Box after 75* 4 ☐ Married, keeping house, raising family – *ASK b* 5 ☐ Other– *Specify* ________ *SKIP to Check Box after 75*
b. Sometimes women decide to work after they have been married for a while. If you were to work, what kind of work would you prefer?	**b.** 1 ☐ Same as present (last) job } *SKIP to Check Box after 75* x ☐ 2 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to Check Box after 75* 3 ☐ Don't plan to work 4 ☐ Different from present job – *Specify* ________ ☐☐☐ *ASK 73*
73. Why do you think you would like this type of work?	**73.** 1 ☐ I'm interested in it; I enjoy it x ☐ 2 ☐ It pays well; is secure 3 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
74. What do you think your chances are of actually getting into this type of work?	**74.** Are they – 1 ☐ Excellent } *SKIP to Check Box after 75* 2 ☐ Good } *SKIP to Check Box after 75* 3 ☐ Fair } *ASK 75* 4 ☐ Poor } *ASK 75*
75. Why do you think the chances are not good?	**75.** 1 ☐ Poor grades 2 ☐ Lack of education 3 ☐ Lack of experience 4 ☐ May change her mind (not sure) 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________

While answering Section IX, was another person present?

1 ☐ Yes   2 ☐ No – *Go to 76*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes   2 ☐ No

X. ATTITUDE TOWARD WOMAN'S ROLE

76. Now I'd like you to think about a family where there is a mother, a father who works full time, and several children under school age. A trusted relative who can care for the children lives nearby. In this family situation, how do you feel about the mother taking a full-time job outside the home? *(Show Flashcard I)*

Statements	Definitely all right	Probably all right	Probably not all right	Definitely not all right	No opinion, undecided
a. If it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. If she prefers to work and her husband agrees	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. If she prefers to work, but her husband doesn't particularly like it	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

77. What do you think is the ideal age for girls to get married?	**77.** Age __________
☐ Respondent has no children – *SKIP to Check Item N* **78.** How much education would you like your child(ren) to get?	**78.** ____________________ ____________________

CHECK ITEM N

Respondent is married and:

1 ☐ In Labor Force Group A or B – *ASK 79*

2 ☐ In Labor Force Group C – *SKIP to 80*

3 ☐ Respondent is not married – *SKIP to Check Item O*

79. How does your husband feel about your working – does he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?	**79.** 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it somewhat 3 ☐ Not care either way 4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 5 ☐ Dislike it very much *SKIP to Check Item O*
80. How do you think your husband would feel about your working now – would he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?	**80.** 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it somewhat 3 ☐ Not care either way 4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 5 ☐ Dislike it very much

Notes

XI. ASSETS AND INCOME

CHECK ITEM O	1 ☐ Respondent or husband is NOT head of household – *SKIP to 83a* 2 ☐ Respondent or husband is head of household – *ASK 81a*
81a. In 1967, did you (or your husband) receive financial assistance from any of your relatives?	**81a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 82a*
b. From whom? ______________________________	
c. How much did you receive?	**c.** $ ______________
82a. Is this house (apartment) owned or being bought by you (or your husband)?	**82a.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 83a*
b. About how much do you think this property would sell for on today's market?	**b.** $ ______________
c. About how much do you (or your husband) owe on this property for mortgages, back taxes, home improvement loans, etc.?	**c.** $ ______________ 0 ☐ None
83a. Do you (or your husband) have any money in savings or checking accounts, savings and loan companies, or credit unions?	**83a.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much altogether? $ ______________ 2 ☐ No
b. Do you (or your husband) have any–	
1. U.S. Savings Bonds?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – What is their face value? $ ______________ 2 ☐ No – *GO to (2)*
2. Stocks, bonds, or mutual funds?	1 ☐ Yes – About how much is their market value? $ ______________ 2 ☐ No
84a. Do you (or your husband) rent, own, or have an investment in a farm, business, or any other real estate?	**84a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – d* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 85a*
b. Which one?	**b.** 1 ☐ Farm 2 ☐ Business 3 ☐ Real estate
c. About how much do you think this (business, farm, or other real estate) would sell for on today's market?	**c.** $ ______________
d. What is the total amount of debt and other liabilities on this (business, farm, or other real estate)?	**d.** $ ______________ 0 ☐ None
85a. Do you (or your husband) own an automobile?	**85a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 86*
b. What is the make and model year? *If more than one, ask about newest.*	**b.** Model year ______________ Make ______________
c. When was it purchased?	**c.** Year ______________
d. Do you owe any money on this automobile?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much altogether? $ ______________ 2 ☐ No
86. Do you (or your husband) owe any (other) money to stores, banks, doctors, or anyone else, excluding 30-day charge accounts?	**86.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much altogether? $ ______________ 2 ☐ No

XI. ASSETS AND INCOME – *Continued*

	Respondent	Husband x ☐ Not married
Now I would like to ask a few questions about your income in 1967. **87a.** How much did you (or your husband) receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?	**87a.** $________ 0 ☐ None	$________ 0 ☐ None
b. Did you (or your husband) receive any income from working on your own or in your own business or farm? $________ less ________ = (Gross income) (Expenses)	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $________ 2 ☐ No	1 ☐ Yes – How much? $________ 2 ☐ No
c. Did you (or your husband) receive any unemployment compensation?	1 ☐ Yes **c.** (1) How many weeks? ________ (2) How much? $________ 2 ☐ No	1 ☐ Yes (1) How many weeks? ________ (2) How much? $________ 2 ☐ No
d. Did you (or your husband) receive any other income, such as rental income, interest or dividends, income as a result of disability, or illness, etc.?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $________ 2 ☐ No	1 ☐ Yes – How much? $________ 2 ☐ No

CHECK ITEM P	1 ☐ Respondent (and husband) lives alone – *SKIP to 88b* 2 ☐ All others – *ASK 88a (If two or more RELATED respondents in household ASK 88a – b only once, and transcribe answers from the first to the other questionnaires).*

88a. In 1967, what was the total income of ALL family members living here? *(Show Flashcard 2)*	**88a.** 1 ☐ Under $1,000 2 ☐ $ 1,000 – $ 1,999 3 ☐ 2,000 – 2,999 4 ☐ 3,000 – 3,999 5 ☐ 4,000 – 4,999 6 ☐ 5,000 – 5,999 7 ☐ 6,000 – 7,499 8 ☐ 7,500 – 9,999 9 ☐ 10,000 – 14,999 10 ☐ 15,000 – 24,999 11 ☐ 25,000 and over ☐ Don't know
b. Did anyone in this family receive any welfare or public assistance in 1967?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much altogether? $________ 2 ☐ No

CHECK ITEM Q.	1 ☐ Respondent lives with parents – *SKIP to Check Box after 89b* 2 ☐ Respondent does not live with parents – *ASK 89a*

89a. How many persons, not counting yourself or (your husband) are dependent upon you for at least one-half of their support?	**89a.** Number________ 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to Check Box after 89b*
b. Do any of these dependents live somewhere other than here at home with you?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – Who are they? ________ ________ 2 ☐ No

While answering Section XI was another person present?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *GO to 90*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

XII. FAMILY BACKGROUND

Now I have some questions on your family background. **90.** Where were you born?	**90.** 1 ☐ U.S. City__________ County__________ State __________ 2 ☐ Outside U.S. *Specify country*__________
91. For how long have you been living in this area (city or county of CURRENT residence)?	**91.** 1 ☐ Less than 1 year 2 ☐ 1 year or more – *Specify* __________ 3 ☐ All my life – *SKIP to 94*
92. Where did you live before moving to (name of city or county of CURRENT residence)?	**92.** 1 ☐ U.S. City __________ County __________ State __________ 2 ☐ Outside U.S. *Specify country* __________
93. Where did you live when you were 18?	**93.** 0 ☐ Respondent is 18 or less 1 ☐ U.S. City__________ County __________ State __________ 2 ☐ Outside U.S. *Specify country* __________
94. 0 ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 95* How old were you at the time of your first marriage?	**94.** Age__________
Now I'd like to ask about your parents. **95.** Are your mother and father living?	**95.** 1 ☐ BOTH parents alive 2 ☐ MOTHER alive, Father dead 3 ☐ FATHER alive, Mother dead 4 ☐ NEITHER parent alive
0 ☐ Respondent is not married – *SKIP to 97* **96.** What about your husband's parent's? Are his mother and father living?	**96.** 1 ☐ BOTH parents alive 2 ☐ MOTHER alive, Father dead 3 ☐ FATHER alive, Mother dead 4 ☐ NEITHER parent alive
97. Where were your parents born – in the U.S. or some other country?	**97a.** FATHER 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify*__________ **b.** MOTHER 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify*__________ *If either parent born outside U.S. – SKIP to 99*

XII. FAMILY BACKGROUND – Continued

98. In what country were your grandparents born?	**98.**
a. Father's father	**a.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
b. Father's mother	**b.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
c. Mother's father	**c.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
d. Mother's mother	**d.** 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
99. Which of the categories on this card describes where you were living when you were 14 years old? *(Show Flashcard 3)*	**99.** 1 ☐ On a farm or ranch 2 ☐ In the country, not on farm or ranch 3 ☐ In a town or small city (under 25,000) 4 ☐ In the suburb of a large city 5 ☐ In a city of 25,000 – 100,000 6 ☐ In a large city (100,000 or more)
100. With whom were you living when you were 14 years old? *If 6, 7, or 8 marked – Specify* ________ ________ ________	**100.** 1 ☐ Father and mother 2 ☐ Father and step-mother 3 ☐ Mother and step-father 4 ☐ Father 5 ☐ Mother 6 ☐ Some other adult MALE relative } *Specify* 7 ☐ Some other adult FEMALE relative } *Specify* 8 ☐ Some other arrangement } *Specify* 9 ☐ On my own – *SKIP to 102*
101a. What kind of work was your father (or head of the household) doing when you were 14 years old?	**101a.** Occupation ________ ☐☐☐ ☐ Did not work
b. Did your mother work for pay when you were 14 years old?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 102*
c. What kind of work did she do?	**c.** Occupation ☐☐☐ ________
102a. Did you or your parents (or person mentioned in 100) regularly get any magazines when you were about 14 years old?	**102a.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
b. Did you or your parents (or person mentioned in 100) regularly get a newspaper when you were about 14 years old?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
c. Did you or your parents have a library card when you were about 14 years old?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
CHECK ITEM R	1 ☐ Father lives in household } *SKIP to Check Item S* 2 ☐ Father deceased } *SKIP to Check Item S* 3 ☐ Did not live with father when 14 years old (Q. 100) } *SKIP to Check Item S* ☐ Other – *ASK 103a*
103a. During 1967 about how many weeks did your father work either full-time or part-time (not counting work around the house)?	**103a.** Weeks ________ 0 ☐ Did not work } *SKIP to 104a* 1 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 104a*
b. Did your father usually work full-time or part-time?	**b.** 1 ☐ Full-time 2 ☐ Part-time
c. What kind of work was he doing? *If more than one, record the one worked at longest.*	**c.** ☐☐☐

XII. FAMILY BACKGROUND – Continued

104a. What was the highest grade (or year) of regular school your father ever attended?	**104a.** 1. Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2. High school 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3. College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐
b. Did he finish this grade (or year)?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
CHECK ITEM S	1 ☐ Mother lives in household 2 ☐ Mother deceased 3 ☐ Did not live with mother when 14 years old (Q. 100) } *SKIP to 107a* ☐ Other – *ASK 105a*
105a. During 1967 about how many weeks did your mother work either full-time or part-time (not counting work around the house)?	**105a.** Weeks ________ 0 ☐ Did not work 1 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 106a*
b. Did your mother usually work full-time or part-time?	**b.** 1 ☐ Full-time 2 ☐ Part-time
c. What kind of work was she doing? *If more than one, record the one worked at longest.*	**c.**
106a. What was the highest grade (or year) of regular school your mother ever attended?	**106a.** 1. Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 4 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2. High school 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3. College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐
b. Did she finish this grade (or year)?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
107a. Do you have any brothers or sisters who live somewhere else?	**107a.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 109*
b. How many?	**b.**
c. How old is the oldest (living) one?	**c.** Age ________
108a. What was the highest grade (or year) of regular school he (she) ever attended?	**108a.** 1 Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2 High school 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐
b. Did he (she) finish this grade (or year)?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
109. What is your Social Security number?	0 ☐ Does not have one

Notes

Now I have a few questions about the education and work experience of the other family members living here.

Line number	Name	Age	Relationship to respondent	Persons 6 – 24 years old			Persons 25 years old and over		Persons 14 years old and over		
										If person worked at all in 1967	
	List below all persons living here who are related to respondent. *Enter the line number from the Household Record Card*	*(As of January 1, 1968)*	*(Example: husband, son, daughter-in-law, brother, etc.)*	Is . . . attending or enrolled in school? *Circle Y – Yes N – No*	*If "Yes"* – what grade (year)? *If "No"* – What is the highest grade (year) . . . ever attended?	Did . . . finish this grade (year)?	What is the highest grade (year) of regular school . . . has ever attended?	Did . . . finish this grade (year)?	During 1967 how many weeks did . . . work either full or part time (not counting work around the house)?	In the weeks that . . . worked, how many hours did . . . usually work per week?	What king of work was . . . doing in 1967? *If more than one, record the longest*
110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121
			Respondent								
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N		Y N			

122. *ASK at the completion of the interview. If more than one respondent in the household, ask for each.*
We would like to contact you again next year at this time to bring this information up to date. Would you please give me the name, address, and telephone number of two relatives or friends who will always know where you can be reached even if you move away? – *Enter information below.*

Name	Relationship to respondent	Address	Telephone number
1.			
2.			

CHECK ITEM T

1 ☐ Respondent has completed less than 1 year of high school (Q. 2 or 4)
Respondent has completed 1 or more years of high school and –
2 ☐ Signed release
3 ☐ Did not sign release

Notes

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